AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

The Deaf,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

R. O. JOHNSON, OF INDIANA, F. D. CLARKE, OF MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA, A. L. E. CROUTER, OF PENNSYLVANIA, AND J. W. JONES, OF OHIO,

Committee of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf.

VOL. L, NO. 5.

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DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTE
JACKSON, MISS.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

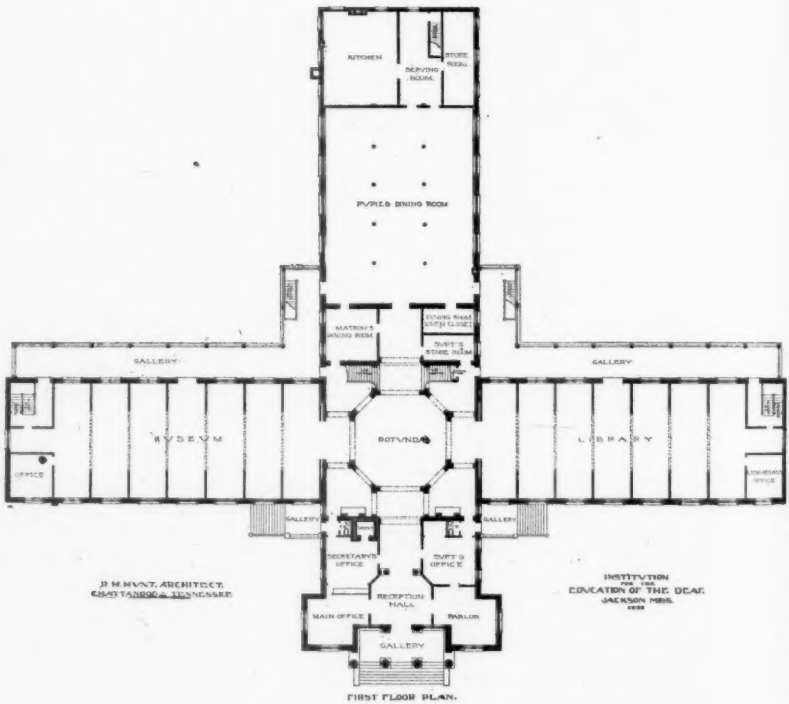
VOL. L, NO. 5.

NOVEMBER, 1905.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CENTER BUILDING OF THE MISSISSIPPI INSTITUTION.

THIS Institution is situated on a tract of sixty acres of land in the western part of the city of Jackson, the western boundary of these grounds being the corporation line of the city. The front of the grounds is about one thousand feet on Capitol street, one of the principal streets of the city. The front steps are about 125 feet from the street curbing. The front of the building is 256 feet. The approach to the building has seven stone steps 32 feet long, which lead on to a gallery (or porch) 32 feet by 10 feet, with tile floor and four handsome columns, on stone bases 4 feet square, extending to the third story. The entrance is through double doors 7 feet wide into a reception hall 16 feet by 20 feet; thence between handsome columns on either side into another hall 14 feet by 16 feet which leads into a rotunda 50 feet square, which extends up through the third story and is lighted by a dome. To the left of the hall which leads from the entrance to the rotunda is the entrance through double doors to the general office, which is 36 by 20 feet, divided by a handsome oak counter behind which is located the safe, vault, secretary's desk, etc., etc. To the right of this hall in front is the parlor or reception room 18 feet square. To the right of this hall and at the rear of the parlor is the

Superintendent's private office, 16 by 20 feet. At the rear of the main office and the Superintendent's office are toilet rooms for the officers. The corners of the main front of the building are carried up into two handsome towers rising 55 or 60 feet from the ground. In the



FIRST FLOOR PLAN.

tiptop of each tower is a large electric light. These light up the whole of the grounds around the building.

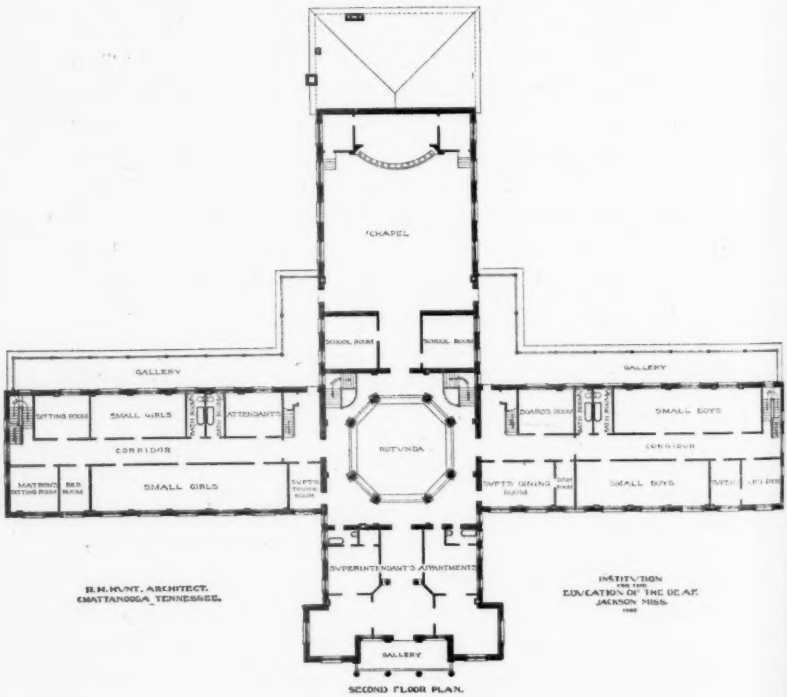
The rotunda has two handsome brick mantles with large fireplaces for wood. There are eight massive columns extending from the ground to the floor of the third story, supporting the floor of the first story and the balconies of the second and third stories.

At the right of the rotunda is the entrance through folding doors 12 feet wide and 11 feet high to the library, which is 38 feet wide and 103 feet long. This space is divided into 12 alcoves 9 feet by 12 feet connected by arches studded with electric lights, thus forming a passage-way between the alcoves 19 feet wide. At the rear end of the library is the librarian's office on one side, 14 feet square, and opposite this office is a hall 14 feet square, in which is situated a stairway which leads from the basement to the third story. The space between this office and the hall for the stairway is a 10 feet extension of the library, at the end of which are large double windows.

At the left of the rotunda is the entrance through sliding doors 12 feet wide and 11 feet high to the museum which is an exact duplicate of the library, including the office for the keeper of the museum and the hall for the stairway which leads from the basement to the third story. Each alcove in the library and museum is supplied with adjustable electric lights, with cord of sufficient length to carry the light into any part of the alcove, so that the titles of books, etc., may be readily examined. Each alcove is lighted by a large double window, making fifteen large double windows in the library and the same number in the museum. The offices in the museum and library are lighted by windows of the same size. Two handsome stairways lead from the rear of the rotunda to the second floor. From the rear of the rotunda is a hall 14 feet by 18 feet, which leads to the double doors that enter the pupils' dining-room. To the left of this hall is the matron's dining-room 18 feet square. To the right of this hall is the Superintendent's store-room 9 feet by 18 feet. Back of this store-room is a linen room for the pupils' dining-room, 9 feet by 18 feet. The pupils' dining-room is 50 feet by 64 feet; the ceiling is supported by eight handsome iron columns.

At the rear of the pupils' dining-room is a large kitchen,

a large serving room, a store-room, and a stairway leading to the basement. There is a gallery 16 feet wide, two stories, extending the full length of the library, and back 36 feet to a door into the pupils' dining-room, through which the boys enter. In this back gallery is a stairway



leading from the basement to the second floor. A duplicate of this two-story gallery, except the stairway that leads from the first floor to the second floor, is provided in the rear of the museum, which gives the girls access to the dining-room and chapel through doors opposite those entered by the boys. The wings formed by the library and museum drop back 48 feet from the front line

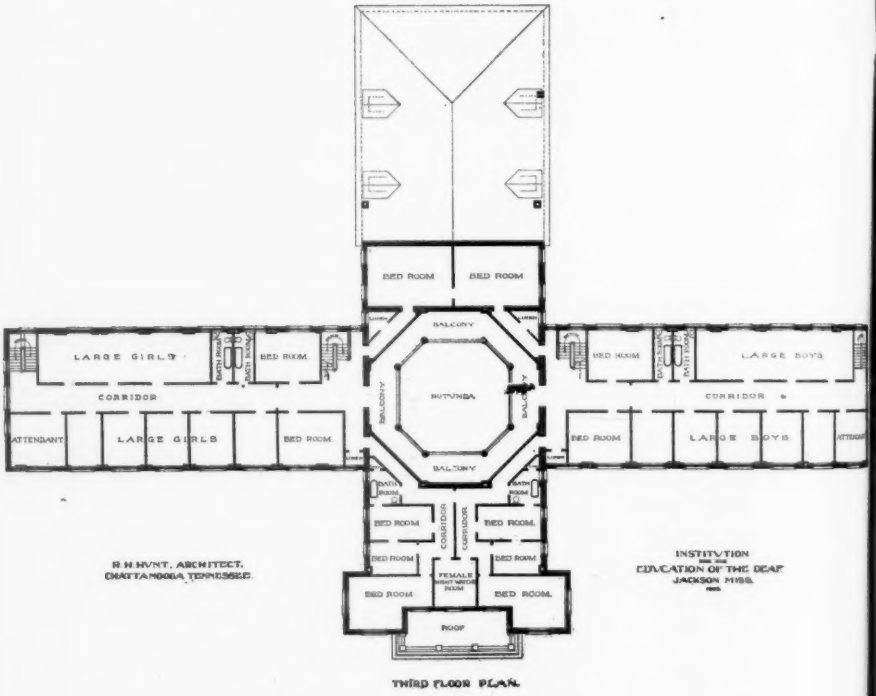
of the center part of the building, giving ample light and ventilation to the offices and parlor.

The second floor of the building, directly over the offices and parlor, is set apart as the Superintendent's private apartments. In addition to this the Superintendent has on the same floor, directly over the end of the library which joins the rotunda, a private dining-room. The Superintendent's apartments are provided with two bath and two toilet rooms. In front of the Superintendent's apartments is the second floor of the front gallery, making a private gallery 10 feet by 32 feet for the Superintendent's family.

The rear wing, the part over pupils' dining-room, etc., is divided into two schoolrooms and a chapel, which has a large stage with dressing-rooms on either side. The chapel is entered by the pupils from the galleries on either side. There are double doors forming an entrance to the chapel from the second floor of the rotunda. On this floor of the wing over the library is a room for the boys' supervisor, adjoining which is a room 15 feet by 50 feet, which is to be a dormitory for the very smallest boys in the institution. The opposite side is divided into a room 15 feet by 48 feet for little boys of the next size, a room 15 feet by 18 feet, called the Board's room, and two bath and two toilet rooms. Extending the whole length of the wing is a hall 8 feet wide, which is entered by a double door from the rotunda, a single door from the rear gallery, and a stairway at the end of the wing. The girls' side or wing over the museum is almost a duplicate of this.

There is no stairway leading from the second floor of the rotunda to the third floor. The balconies on the third floor of the rotunda are entered through double doors from each wing. The front part of the third floor, directly over the Superintendent's apartments, is to be

used for the present as hospitals. A hall leads from either wing to these hospital rooms, which have on either side a room for convalescents, two small rooms 10 by 20 feet for sick patients, with bath and toilets adjoining. The girls' side is a duplicate of this. There is a room



between the boys' and girls' side for the nurse, who has access to either side.

The boys' side or wing over the library on this floor has two school-rooms, two bath and two toilet rooms, a hall 8 feet wide extending the full length of the wing, with the rest of the space on either side of this hall divided into small rooms which are to accommodate two or three boys

each. This floor is for the larger boys. The third floor of the girls' wing, or that part over the museum, is an exact duplicate of the third floor of the wing just described. The rear wing of this floor consists of two large school-rooms.

In addition to the stairway, which extends from the basement to the third story at the end of the boys' wing and the end of the girls' wing, there is a stairway starting on the second floor of either wing at the end next the rotunda, which leads to the third floor and thence to the towers in front.

Under the library or the boys' wing is a playroom for the boys, 38 feet by 103 feet and 9 feet high, with brick walls and concrete floor, provided with toilet rooms.

Under the museum or the girls' wing is a duplicate playroom for the girls.

Under the rear wing is a basement 48 feet wide and 115 feet long and 9 feet high; in the basement is a boiler room, a coal room in which can be stored five hundred tons of coal, a servants' dining-room, a large store-room, and two servants' rooms. There is no basement under the front part of the building.

In the building there are three systems of locks; one for the girls' dormitories, master-keys to which are carried by the matron and housekeeper alone, not even the Superintendent having a key by which to enter this apartment. There are eight doors leading from the outside into the girls' apartments. In addition to the locks on these doors belonging to the girls' system, there are "dead-locks" on the outside of these eight doors belonging to the third system, making it impossible for any passing through these doors unless both locks are turned.

The second system is for the Superintendent's private apartments.

The third system includes every other door in and

around the building. Master-keys to the third system are carried by the Superintendent, the matron, and the boys' supervisor. Every dormitory room is provided with ventilating flues.

The building is heated entirely by steam.

The building is provided with four long-distance telephones connected with the city exchange.

The building is furnished with seventeen house-telephones so arranged that communication can be had at convenient points on all floors, including the basement, the colored department, and the barn and dairy. This system of house-telephones is the non-interfering, intercommunicating system.

A large electric gong for signal purposes is placed in one of the towers.

The building is provided with electric clocks run by a master clock in the main office.

The building is lighted by electricity. The main switchboard, inclosed in a handsome oak cabinet with glass door, is in the rotunda. This switchboard has a large marble slab on which are the meter and a double-pole double-throw fifty-ampere switch, which can make connection with the local or city dynamo and switch for each floor of each wing. In addition to this switchboard there are switchboards providing centers of distribution on each floor on each wing.

The rotunda is illuminated with 105 sixteen-candle-power lamps, the library with 129, the museum with 129, the pupils' dining-room with 32, and the chapel with 60; the parlors, offices, bedrooms, and dormitories are lighted in keeping with the other parts of the building. Besides the lights in the towers there are lights under the eaves to illuminate the outside of the building on special occasions.

The building cost $74,000.00.

The Commission went as far as the appropriation would allow. The building as now finished is only part of the main building as planned. It can be added to in the future. Some of the rooms will be used for school purposes until the school building is erected. It is to be hoped that the plant will be finished in keeping with this attractive structure.

J. R. DOBYNS,
Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution,
Jackson, Mississippi.

WORK FOR THE DEAF-MUTES IN CHINA.

THE readers of the *Annals* will have been prepared by the short notes which have appeared in its pages from time to time for some further particulars regarding the work among the deaf-mutes in China, and I shall endeavor, as far as possible, to answer, directly or indirectly, such questions as have been asked of me during the past few months.

For the benefit of those whose attention is called to the work for the first time, a little explanation is necessary.

HOW I CAME TO TAKE UP THIS WORK.

My interest in the deaf began in the care of a younger brother, which led me to fit myself as a teacher for the deaf. Later my marriage to the Rev. Charles Rogers Mills, D. D., a missionary under the American Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, stationed at Têng Chowfu, North China, removed my sphere of labor to that country. Mr. Mills's interest in the deaf came through the affliction of a son, who was a pupil in the Rochester School while I was teaching there. Quite naturally, therefore, our attention turned toward that class in China for which nothing had ever been done.

The Number of Deaf-Mutes in China.

We have no means of knowing, definitely, the number of deaf that move silently among the countless throngs of China's millions. Presenting a normal appearance to the casual observer, I have known even missionaries to hazard the statement that there are comparatively few. One gentleman went so far as to assert that there were none, as "all defectives were destroyed at birth," forgetting for the moment that the defect of deafness is not apparent until between two and three years of age, when it is too late easily to dispose of a child. Childhood in China struggles through the same list of diseases that leave deafness as their heritage, as do children of other countries, and, left as they are to the superstitious care of native doctors and the ignorant neglect of parents, there is little question but that the results must be oftener disastrous.

I have on my list the names of over fifty boys of school age found by canvassing only a few of the villages of Eastern Shantung; alas! most of these are now past reaching. I once sent out an evangelist to preach among the people, gain their confidence, and ascertain if there were any deaf children among them. He returned after a tour of two weeks, having visited about sixty villages, exclaiming, "There is no end of deaf people." He gave me the names and addresses of twenty-five children of school age, having taken no account of the adults.

Four Hundred Thousand Deaf in China.

We do not hesitate in applying the per cent. found in America to the population of China, estimating that there are nearly four hundred thousand deaf in that great empire, almost as many as there are in all the rest of the world. Of this great number we have been able to reach only *nineteen* boys.

What the Chinese Have Done Themselves.

As far as I have investigated no definite effort has been made on the part of the Chinese to rescue any of these thousands from the dead silence in which they dwell. Only a *very few* isolated cases have come to light where an attempt has been made to teach a boy to write a few Chinese words. One boy that I met knew how to write several, but they were meaningless to him.

I knew a deaf man who could write sufficiently to be able to transact ordinary business. His family had hired a private tutor who went with him to the markets and other places and with pen and blank book wrote the names of articles and statements of business done. His vocabulary was small and single words did duty for whole sentences.

Seeing a Chinese book advertised under the title of "A Method for Teaching the Deaf," we procured a copy and carefully read it through. It was an ingenious arrangement of several thousands of characters, according to initials and finals, with tones, compiled by two Chinese teachers; as far as we could see it was useless, except as theory, but it was interesting to note that the need had been felt and an attempt made to meet it.

Work Done by the French Nuns.

At one time several pupils were in the care of the French nuns at the convent in Shanghai, but as far as I could learn very little was done for them further than to teach them trades. Just how much was accomplished I do not know. I was told that the nun who was proficient in teaching had died. I was anxious to visit the convent and see for myself; so one time when I was in Shanghai with some friends we hired a carriage and *ma fu* (driver), and started for Sicawei. We had been invited to take

dinner with the Presbyterian missionaries at the South Gate. Our horse was slow, the road execrable, the distance long, and after a call at the Government College we found that we must give up seeing the convent or disappoint our friends. It seemed wise to turn back. I shall make another attempt when I am again in Shanghai.

One of their pupils, a half-caste boy, of the class known in the Far East as Eurasian, having European father and a Chinese mother, came to me later, and during a course of fifteen months rapidly learned to use simple English sentences. We thought he might have been taught French, but a test showed no knowledge of that language. He had been taught drawing and woodcarving, the latter by a Chinese teacher, and his wits were quickened to take advantage of every lesson, and he was eager to learn. Before he came to the Chifu School he was employed in the office of one of the dockyards in Shanghai in making copies of mechanical drawings, in which he showed great skill, but having no language it was difficult to give him directions. When he left us he returned to that work, where he earns his support.

Lip-Reading Taught by Mrs. Box.

Three years ago a younger sister of this boy lost her hearing through scarlet fever. I wrote to Mrs. E. Box, of the London Missionary Society, formerly a teacher of the deaf at Ealing, England, and she kindly undertook to teach her lip-reading. As she was a girl of twelve she already had a good command of language and Mrs. Box found the work comparatively easy. Both of these pupils used the English language, not the Chinese.

How the Deaf are Regarded by the Chinese.

The deaf are regarded by the Chinese as incapable of learning letters. They are often ill-treated, shunned, and

despised, until their tempers make them a menace to the public safety. Believed to be possessed of evil spirits there is no place for them in the economy of the country. Deaf girls are often sold into slavery and driven into lives of sin and vice, yet no one cares. But really does no one care? Read this letter from a Chinese Christian mother, whose boy, an only son, was with us five years. She writes: "I thank you because you are willing to spend thought and heart, dearly loving our Chinese children, even ours, for whom we had no hope that he would ever learn to read and become a useful man, because we saw he could not speak. Truly, for him we were very, very sorrowful, and we had no other way only always to pray for him, asking the Lord to open a way for him; then, when we were not thinking of it, the Lord graciously showed his favor, giving us this good opportunity. Truly it is happiness beyond what we had hoped."

The First Organized Work.

The first organized work was started in Têng Chowfu in 1887, when eighteen boys received instruction. This school was disbanded in 1896 and re-opened two years later in Chifu, where it has been carried on ever since. To do this I was obliged to leave the care of the Presbyterian Board and work as an independent missionary. Arrangements were made with the Board by Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, of Rochester, by which the trustees of his school stood in such relation to the Chifu School as to make it legal for Dr. Westervelt to collect funds.

How the School is Supported.

"The Silent Workers," Miss H. E. Hamilton, president, and the "Little Helpers," formed by Miss Mary E. Tousey, now Mrs. Frederick Hoyt, of Park City, Utah, and at

present under Miss Rosa H. Halpen's guiding hand, missionary societies in the Rochester School, were the first to send aid to the Chifu School. Other schools and societies of the adult deaf and their friends, both in America and Great Britain, have grandly helped on the cause and deserve our sincere thanks.

Why not Supported by the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions.

Burdened by the ever-widening, ever-increasing demands of the work of the Church on the foreign field, the Presbyterian Board saw, in this attempt to give the Chinese a practical illustration of what Christianity does for poor humanity, a phase of work which would appeal to people not necessarily interested in Christian missions in foreign lands, and believing that it would receive from other sources the support it needed, declined to place it under its care, further than to give it its fullest and heartiest endorsement, and commend it to every one interested in such work of whatever country or denomination.

It is also ready to pass on through its channels any "special" gift that may be sent to its care, provided it is distinctly marked, "For the Chifu School for the Deaf."

How Regarded by the Missionaries of China.

The missionaries of different nationalities and denominations at work in China testified their appreciation of the work by giving, during 1903, the sum of seven hundred dollars.

Dr. W. A. P. Martin, formerly president of the Imperial College in Peking, wrote of the school as follows: "It has been proved in China, as well as elsewhere, that the dumb may be taught to speak without the companion miracle of the deaf being made to hear."

Dr. Arthur H. Smith, author of "Chinese Characteristics," in a newspaper letter wrote thus: "One of the interesting and wholly unique institutions of Chifu is a school for deaf and dumb lads under the management of Mrs. Mills, widow of Rev. Charles R. Mills, formerly of Têng Chowfu. This accomplished teacher was trained from childhood in the art, which is thus almost a second nature, and she has carried her philanthropy to a point where its great usefulness is apparent even to the unenthusiástic Chinese. Foreigners sometimes visit Chifu for the express purpose of investigating this attractive enterprise, which ought to be at once endowed as an example of what might be done in other parts of the Empire with the like patience and skill. There ought to be a similar institution begun for girls. It is surprising, to those who undertake the investigation, to find how large a number of pupils could be at once collected anywhere from a class now wholly neglected by the Chinese, and for whom, in their social system, there is no place and no use."

"It is like giving him a soul," said one friend after watching one of the boys with his teacher.

How Regarded by the Chinese.

It was Admiral C. P. Sah, I. C. N., who, after a visit to the school, as he was leaving, made this graceful speech: "I have no words to express my appreciation of what you are doing. Many hearing boys of longer time in school cannot write so many characters. I think that if boys want to learn characters they should become deaf and attend Mrs. Mills's school."

A native Chinese pastor said to me: "They tell me the age of miracles is past, but I have seen my first miracle."

When I was leaving China for my visit to the homeland the Chinese united in presenting to me four beautiful silk banners and a scroll, all expressing their appreciation.

On one the sentiment referred to an honorable woman of olden time who was canonized by the Emperor for her good deeds; on another, from the father of one of the pupils, in beautiful gold embroidery on white satin, were these words: "The deaf sing praises."

Help Given by the Chinese.

Again and again it has been said to me, "Such a school as yours should be supported by the Chinese." We fully expect that some day the Chinese will give the help needed, but first they must be convinced that the deaf can be educated and become useful members of society. A few of the business men in Chifu and some of the Christians and parents of pupils have helped.

One little widowed mother in Ningpo clothes and boards her only son; a Christian father clothed and paid half the board bill of his son; others have brought small gifts of money or food; but the Chinese are poor—poorer than we in America can understand. Ten or twelve cents a day is the wage of an unskilled laborer; skilled labor commands from fifteen to twenty cents; teachers get from five to ten dollars a month and at these rates they board themselves; yet out of this they have helped some.

In a mission station two days' journey from Chifu, the Christian women sent three thousand cash, about two dollars; a little Sunday-school in the far-away province of Honan sent, with the help of two missionary ladies, a tael of silver, equal to about sixty cents; a Girls' School in Wenchow sent about two dollars and twenty cents; and another in Shanghai is going to try to support one of the pupils.

Visit to the Chinese Minister.

It was the thought of getting help from the wealthy and influential Chinese that prompted my recent visit to

Washington, D. C., where I was the guest of the delightful circle at Kendall Green. It was interesting to learn that Dr. E. M. Gallaudet had, in his younger days, the desire to inaugurate work for the deaf in distant China, but was prevented by the Tai Ping Rebellion—a happy event to those who have had the good fortune to come under his influence in that excellent institution of learning, Gallaudet College (for the Deaf), Washington, D. C.; but the influence of the thought of earlier days gives him a special interest in the present effort. Through the courtesy of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell I obtained an interview with the Chinese Minister, Sir Chentung Liang-Cheng, K. C. M. G., and in company with Dr. Gallaudet and Dr. Bell we made a most satisfactory call.

Sir Chentung, who is a graduate of Amherst College, and an affable, intelligent gentleman, needed no great amount of argument to prove to him the benefit of establishing schools for the deaf. He kindly offered to draw the attention of the Governor of the Province of Shantung, a personal friend of his, to the work of the Chifu School, and commend to his attention the training of teachers.

Later, through the kindness of Dr. Gallaudet, I called upon Mr. Rockhill, our new minister, who was on the eve of his departure to China. He was interested and suggested that on my return to China next autumn I should visit Peking with some of my pupils and he would make it possible for me to give a demonstration of what we are doing before the proper officials.

Conservatives warn me that hopes built on these props are "castles in Spain," but we shall certainly some day see the Chinese doing for their deaf all that is done in Christian countries, and perhaps more than is done in some, for they are a kind-hearted people.

Efforts Made by Others.

We have already referred to Dr. Gallaudet's desire to go to China. It was gratifying to hear him introduce me to some friends, at the reception he kindly tendered to me, as the one who was doing the work he had hoped to do; so I am not the only one, nor the first one, to whom the deaf of China have appealed.

Some eighteen years ago Rev. J. Crossette, a missionary formerly under the American Presbyterian Board, now deceased, made an effort to start work in Shanghai. He was a man who lived much among the Chinese, and the need appealed to him greatly. A sum of money was subscribed, but the scheme failed for want of a skilled teacher. It was thought then that instruction must necessarily be given in English.

Mrs. A. P. Lowrie, American Presbyterian Board, Paotingpe, was interested in a little deaf lad living near her home, and taught him some until he died of diphtheria.

During the past seven years while the work has been going on in Chifu, I have had numerous letters from workers in China telling of a deaf boy or girl, and asking what could be done.

Miss E. Mitchell, of the Methodist Episcopal Church of Wuhu, became interested in several deaf children and came to Chifu, bringing with her a little deaf girl and a teacher to be trained. We could not keep the girl, so Miss Mitchell took her back and placed her under the teachers' care in a day-school. I understand that this effort has failed.

Five little deaf girls have been received in a mission school for hearing girls, under the Methodist Episcopal Church, in a city near Foo Chow. They are doing what they can for them, and find that they are bright, interesting pupils, but they need a trained teacher.

Enlargement Demanded.

This brings me to speak of the needs of the school. The present building, which accommodates only fifteen boys, should be enlarged to receive fifty, and a separate building provided for at least twenty-five girls and their teachers. This would enable us successfully to train teachers, who could extend the work into other centers, for which there is already a demand.

To do this another trained teacher should go out from the homeland, and there are those who are ready to go as soon as the school has the money.

Funds Necessary.

The continuation and enlargement of this work devolves mainly on the benevolence of America and Great Britain.

The school needs:

$5,000.00 yearly for current expenses.

$10,000.00 for the proposed enlargement.

The expense per capita per year is $100.00. Twenty-five dollars will clothe and feed a pupil a year.

What Has Been Accomplished.

The school has developed methods and has written and printed in Chinese the lessons which it uses. It has taught the deaf to read and write the Mandarin Chinese characters—the official language of China—and to read the lips of those who speak to them. Nineteen boys have been instructed. After a seven-year course four have been graduated and are happily filling positions where they are earning their own support. Two native teachers have been trained and are engaged in the Chifu School.

The phonetic and pictorial charts used in teaching language and speech were shown in the Chinese educational

exhibit at St. Louis, and brought the award of a gold medal.

Property Owned by Corporation.

The title of the real estate and all the property of the school, which has cost $6,000.00, is vested in the Board of Directors. It consists of about three acres of land on which are erected a modest two-story house and a small bungalow, both of gray brick. There is ample room on the grounds for the proposed enlargements.

The Influence of the School in China.

There is in the heart of every man the seed of benevolence. In the Chinese this largely finds expression in ancestral worship. Christian missions call their attention to its true manifestation, as expressed in trying to alleviate the sufferings of others; hence the need of opening hospitals and dispensaries, establishing schools for the blind and refuges for the insane.

Work for the deaf follows next in order, and there is no question but that the Chifu School has an important part to play in the economy of the New China.

Mrs. Wells, who has kindly taken charge of the school gratis, during my absence, writes as follows: "I have always believed in your work, but I believe in it now more than ever. It is going to benefit not only the deaf whom it may reach, but many others." This can be said of all benevolent work. The simple language lessons which have been prepared are to be used in primary schools for hearing children also, as soon as we can have them printed. This work is being done by the pupils in the school, and the book, when finished, will be a fine specimen of the art of Chinese wood-engraving.

Then there is the spiritual side—the manifestation of the loving Spirit of Christ, who was the first worker for

the deaf—the only class that absolutely cannot be reached by the gospel in the ordinary way. This fact places schools for them on the same plane as the work of the foreign missionary. In that the order is first evangelistic then educational, but in the case of the deaf this is nec essarily reversed.

The Aim of the School.

The plan is to make it a normal training school; to prepare, either in connection with other missions or under direct care of the Chinese, teachers for the extension of the work, to care for and foster these branch schools, and to give to every pupil such instruction, spiritually, mentally, and manually, as shall fit him for life's duty.

We shall not realize this all at once. It means years of patient, persistent labor.

Plan for Raising the Funds.

We want one hundred circles that will give fifty dollars each yearly. About forty-five such circles have already been formed in different schools and among societies of the adult deaf. When there are not enough to raise the whole fifty dollars, a half circle or even a quarter circle might be formed.

To accomplish this one must realize the immense power behind systematic giving of even small sums.

If all work together there is no question but that this can be accomplished.

To Whom Shall We Appeal?

This work must appeal to those who are interested in the deaf in the homelands, either as teachers and leaders among them, or as friends and relatives. Those whose lives have been touched by deafness, either in themselves

or in those they love, are the ones to appreciate what schools will mean to the thousands of deaf among the Chinese.

The school does not seem to come under any of the lines of direct evangelistic work undertaken by foreign mission boards.

By the Deaf for the Deaf.

It therefore devolves mainly on the deaf and their friends to inaugurate this work and see it carried through.

Nothing could be more beautiful in its conception than the deaf of Christian lands doing this for the heathen deaf, and I have never known the educated deaf, when they have understood the conditions, to fail to respond to the call to help their less fortunate brothers and sisters in China.

Can the Deaf do This?

It has been said to me, "The deaf have so little money. How can you ask them to do this?"

I stood in Dr. Alexander Graham Bell's private office and looked at wonderful sheets of paper with wonderful statistics recorded on them. They represented work that Dr. Bell was doing, if I remember rightly, at the request of the government, and were to prove that it pays, financially, to educate the deaf even at the expense of the State. But the most wonderful part of it was the fact that they showed a high per cent. of wage-earning power among them.

I have read lately that the reports of the courts show fewer criminals and paupers among the deaf than is found in any other class. They are reliable, industrious, and God-fearing.

Hearing children are taught through the influence of home and Sunday-schools to give their pennies to the

Lord's work. How many of the deaf children are so taught?

Among the pupils of the schools which I have visited the majority are furnished with more pocket money than the same number of hearing children. There are few among them who do not have five or ten cents a week to spend for candy.

A dear, sweet little deaf girl, hearing of the need in China, brought ten cents which she had just received from home and wanted to give it all. Her teacher, knowing that ten-cent pieces rarely came her way, suggested that she divide it and only give a part. "No," she said, "*all* for Jesus."

But He does not require all—only a tithe. Take as an illustration what a school of a hundred pupils, each giving one cent a week, for forty weeks, could do. The result would be one dollar a week—$40.00 for the school-year—and the pupils instead of being that much poorer are that much richer—richer in love, richer in all those attributes that go to make up noble manhood and womanhood.

Again it is objected, "The schools for the deaf are most of them government schools, supported by public money. They are not Sunday-schools; besides we have all denominations represented among both pupils and teachers."

This is all true, but it is not a valid reason. It is not an adequate excuse. The pupils receive, or should receive, their religious training in the school where they are educated, from the teachers who understand them and their limitations. Most of them spend their Sabbaths at the school during the greater part of the impressionable period of childhood, and if it is true, as one teacher of the deaf told me, when speaking of the advanced pupils in the school, that they were mostly skeptical, then some teacher, or teachers, failed to do their whole duty. As

to the different denominations, this is not pertinent to the question. The Chifu School is undenominational. We teach "Christ the Saviour of men."

Let us take a broad high stand in this matter, and on every occasion possible help the children under our care to do some little work for Christ. If hearing children are taught to give, why not the deaf? Why should they be debarred from a share in the world's evangelization? In what class would they be more interested than the deaf?

Your Share in this Work.

The thoughtful reader will readily see the need of relieving the head of this movement of the strain of raising funds to promote it. My time and strength should be conserved for the direct work of the school. A great deal more could have been accomplished in the past seven years if this had been done.

And now, prayerfully, the matter is laid before you for your consideration as to your relation to it. The work will some time be supported by the Chinese, but now is the time when it must depend upon you.

The words of our noble President still sound in my ears. Dr. Gallaudet was saying, "I want you to know what Mrs. Mills is doing. She has established the first school for the deaf in China." President Roosevelt turned back to me and again taking my hand said, "Why, is this so? I am delighted to hear this. May you have every success and God bless you."

Dear reader, I cannot do this without your help.

ANNETTA T. MILLS,
Principal of the Chifu School, Chifu, China.

THE UNVEILING OF THE HILL MONUMENT, WEISSENFELS, SAXONY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1905.

THE unveiling of the monument to Friedrich Moritz Hill, in Weissenfels, Saxony, on the 29th of September last, brought together many representative teachers of the deaf and representatives of organizations of the deaf from different parts of Germany. A number of official personages representing the government of Weissenfels were also present. The exercises took place on the grounds of the Weissenfels Institution for the Deaf at 12 o'clock noon. They were opened by the singing of a hymn, "God Bless Thee," by a singing society of the Seminary of Weissenfels.

The principal address of the day was by Mr. Eduard Walther, Director of the Imperial Royal Institution for the Deaf at Berlin. He spoke at some length on Hill's life and work. Following his address came a number of short speeches from representatives of various organizations of teachers and of the deaf in portions of Germany not far distant from Weissenfels. Each one of the speakers presented a wreath of palms or flowers bearing the name of the organization from which it came, these wreaths being deposited around the base of the monument.

Among those who laid wreaths at the foot of the monument were Mr. Ferreri, of Italy, representing Italian teachers of the deaf, and Madame Carstanses, of Denmark. representing the teachers of the deaf of that country.

After the wreaths had been presented, President Gallaudet, of Washington, was introduced as President of the College and also as President of the Convention of American

Instructors of the Deaf. He delivered an address offering the homage of American instructors of the deaf to Hill's memory, and related how, growing out of an interview which he had with Hill in 1867, Hill's opinion with regard to methods of instructing the deaf had great influence upon him and how this influence led to the recommendation of a Combined System of educating the deaf in America.

A second hymn was sung by the seminary choir, "Thy Blessing, O Lord, be upon us," Psalm xxxiii:22. After this the company present walked to the cemetery about half a mile distant and gathered around Hill's grave, where two hymns were sung by the choir and an address was made by Director Gutzmann of the Day-School for the Deaf in Berlin.

After this ceremony about fifty of the company gathered in a prominent restaurant in the town and had a social reunion at dinner, where speeches were made offering toasts to many persons, beginning naturally with the Emperor of Germany. The custom in Germany when toasts are given is not to expect speeches in response, but all rise and with three "Hochs" cheer the one who is toasted and then advance to him clinking their glasses with his and so manifesting their regard. This social gathering was a pleasant occasion, bringing together many who are engaged in the work of educating the deaf A prominent guest at the feast was Mr. P. von Woedtke, the sculptor of the bust of Hill and the designer of the monument. This young man is deaf and was educated at one of the German schools, not at Weissenfels, and now is a successful sculptor in Berlin. An engraving of the bust was given in the May number of the *Annals*.

President Gallaudet's Address.

Mr. President, Honored Colleagues, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I esteem it a great honor and privilege to be allowed to have a part in the exercises of this occasion and to represent the schools for the deaf of America.

As President of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, I bring you most cordial greetings from your fellow laborers of the Western Continent, with an assurance that they join with you in doing all honor to the memory of Moritz Hill.

For myself, I must ask the privilege of paying an individual tribute of respect to him whose monument is unveiled today, for I had the great pleasure of a personal acquaintance with him, and received from him an influence which I think has had an important effect on the development of methods of deaf-mute education in the United States.

If I may be pardoned for a few personal allusions, I will relate how this came about.

During the year 1867, I made a careful inspection of schools for the deaf in Europe, with the object of determining what changes, if any, would seem desirable in the method of instruction then employed in the American schools, in which up to that time very little teaching of speech had been given.

So deeply was I impressed with what I saw of the oral method and its results, especially in Germany, that on my return to my own country I made an earnest recommendation that oral teaching should be introduced into all our schools and that every pupil should be given an opportunity to learn to speak.

In no school in Europe did I find better results than those which came under my notice here in Weissenfels,

and with no teacher was I more impressed as to intelligence, earnestness, and breadth of view than with Moritz Hill.

In my interviews with Hill in 1867, and in reading his important treatise *Der gegenwärtige Zustand des Taubstummen-Bildungswesens in Deutschland*, published the year before, I was greatly impressed with his views as to the value of the language of signs (gestures) in the education of the deaf.

I had supposed, previously, that in the German schools this means of communication was altogether forbidden. It was, therefore, a great surprise to have Hill say:—

"Such an idea must be attributed to malevolence or to unpardonable levity. It would be acting contrary to nature to forbid the deaf-mute a means of expression employed even by hearing and speaking persons. It is nonsense to dream of depriving him of this means until he is in a position to express himself orally. To banish the language of natural signs from the schoolroom, and limit ourselves to articulation, is like employing a gold key which does not fit the lock of the door we would open, and refusing to use the iron one made for it."

In his treatise Hill goes on at too great length to be quoted here, giving thirteen reasons why the language of signs deserves a place in the education of the deaf, and closing his remarks on this subject as follows:

"But it is particularly in the teaching of religion that the language of pantomime plays an important part, especially when it is not only necessary to instruct but to operate on sentiment and will, either because here this language is indispensable to express the moral state of man, his thoughts, and his actions, or that the word alone *makes too little impression on the eye of the mute* to produce, without the aid of pantomime, the desired effect in a manner sure and sufficient."

You are, no doubt, aware that in the American schools for the deaf before 1867, and in most of them up to the present time, the language of signs holds an important place; a place, indeed, of greater prominence than Hill would approve.

When I became convinced, as the result of my examination of European schools for the deaf in 1867, that oral teaching ought to be generally introduced into our American schools, it was a serious problem in my mind what should be done with the language of signs. I could not bring myself into accord with the opinion and practice of many oral teachers that this language must be proscribed. And so when I met a teacher of the eminence of Hill, and one in whose school I found results equal to the best in the teaching of speech, who held the views in regard to signs which I have just quoted, I felt that my troublesome problem was solved.

It was after my interviews with Hill, and largely in consequence of them, that the idea occurred to me of a conciliation of the two methods so long in controversy, the oral and the manual, in what might be called a Combined System, and that term was first used in the literature of our profession in the report I published on my examination of European schools.

In classifying these schools as those (1) on the Manual Method, in which speech was not taught, those (2) on the Oral Method, in which signs were prohibited, and those (3) on the Combined System, in which speech was fully taught, but in which the language of signs was made use of to a greater or less extent, I placed the school of Hill in the third class.

The high standard of results generally attained in schools of this class, as compared with those in the purely Manual or Oral schools, led me to recommend the adoption of a Combined System in our American schools, and for this

recommendation the influence of Hill's opinions, already quoted, is largely responsible. How generally the Combined System is practised in America can be readily shown by a few figures.

There are fifty-seven public State schools for the deaf in the United States in which last year there were 9,986 pupils. Forty-six of these schools with 8,706 pupils are conducted on the Combined System and in these schools 5,069 pupils, or more than fifty per cent., are taught speech successfully. The experience of thirty years of effort to give speech to all the deaf has led the great majority of American teachers to believe that not more than fifty per cent. of their pupils can attain to what may properly be called *success* in vocal utterance. And it is this conviction that leads them to hold as firmly to the Combined System as they do.

The practice of the Combined System is to give every deaf child a full opportunity to learn to speak, and speech teaching is discontinued with those only who are plainly unable to succeed.

In all the schools of America the teaching of speech holds an honored position, and signs are less used in the classroom than they were a few years ago. The influence of German ideas and German methods is thus everywhere shown. It may surprise Germans to be told that the Combined System, now so prevalent in America, owes its origin in large measure to the influence of the opinions of Moritz Hill, but such is the fact, as I have endeavored to show.

It is fitting, therefore, that American teachers should unite with German teachers in honoring him of whom your Memorial Committee in its first circular most justly said:

"Hill's eminent importance in the domain of the education of the deaf extends far beyond the limits of his German fatherland. His efforts in the field of the instruc-

tion of the deaf, and his creation of a natural method, have exerted the most favorable influence upon the instruction of the deaf of other countries."

Speaking for my colleagues on the other side of the ocean, I say, All hail! Moritz Hill. In marble and bronze shall his memory be here preserved during the coming centuries, and the influence of his broad views be felt through the ages of the future in all lands where the deaf are taught.

EDWARD M. GALLAUDET,
President of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

MR. STORY'S "LANGUAGE FOR THE DEAF."*

THIS is, undoubtedly, the most practically valuable book ever published upon the subject of teaching English to the deaf. Theories, clearly set forth and based on the soundest principles of modern psychology, are accompanied by many pages of practice-work so skeletonized that the individual teacher is left as free to follow his own methods as if he had himself articulated the skeleton framework of the suggested lessons. In fact, the experienced teacher will at once recognize many of the dry bones he handles daily—the journals, descriptions of pictures, newspaper work, and others. But even the most hoary amongst us will be glad to see, for the first time, all his different classroom exercises judiciously unified. He will find it very handy, when his stock of illustrations runs low, to

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* "*Language for the Deaf.*" A Book for the use of Teachers, containing a Series of Notes on the Principles underlying the Education of the Deaf, and the Outlines of a Course of Lessons based upon those Principles. By Arthur J. Story, Headmaster of The North Staffordshire Joint School Authority's Blind and Deaf School, Stoke-upon-Trent, Author of "Speech for the Deaf." Hanley: Wood, Mitchell and Co., Ltd., Printers, Oriel Works, Park Street, 1905. 12 mo., pp. 186.

have within quick reach a full supply of less shopworn goods than his own wherewith to quicken the jaded schoolroom market. He will also find "Language for the Deaf" a Godsend in starting a new class older or younger than the grade he has habitually taught. He will rejoice in in the fact that Mr. Story's book is sympathetic without being ultra-sentimental. And after all nobody needs more, and receives less, sympathy than the teacher of English to the deaf. The language teacher's colleagues, in the slang of the street, "have troubles of their own." His Principal is usually too fully occupied with the needs of the school as a whole to give special attention to the improvement or non-improvement in English of John and Elizabeth. Officers and attendants who might help wonderfully in giving language practice to the children outside of school seldom seem to realize that for the deaf language is the greatest thing on earth. All too frequently such persons resent any suggestions of the teacher in regard to using English with the pupils outside of school hours—putting the recognition of their own petty authority before the everlasting welfare of the child. Often, very often, the language teacher feels that nobody cares—that his enthusiasm in the light of meagre results is foolishness and his labor a vain thing. In such a mood of discouragement Mr. Story's robust gospel—"Language the Whole Problem of the Education of the Deaf"—comes to the disheartened teacher like a cool wind over a parched field.

"There is but one way, walk ye in it" might serve as the text of Mr. Story's excellent prefatory sermon. Mark the italics (they are the reviewer's, not the author's) in the following:

"Language, *using the term as synonymous with and expressive of mental growth*, is the key to the whole problem of the education of the deaf. It opens up the accumulated

wisdom of the ages, and is the only means by which the deaf may be truly said to be restored to the society of those among whom they must live and labor."

In the past, teachers of the deaf have too often looked upon language as something imposed upon the deaf child from without. Mr. Story says truly:

"There is only one road to language, and that is through obedience to the *principles* governing mental association and growth; and along this road the deaf must travel in company with their hearing fellows, if they are to enter the same promised land of intellectual competence and fluency of expression."

Superficially viewed the above paragraph might seem to favor the hap-hazard "natural method" on which so many deaf-mutes have been wrecked. But Mr. Story, as a matter of fact, though an empiricist to the core, makes no claim that, in the acquirement of language, the mental experience of a hearing child can be duplicated by his deaf brother. After describing the way in which a hearing child builds up language concepts the author goes on:

"How far are these features capable of realization in the deaf, who intellectually are not inferior, but whose mind is more difficult of access?

"The deaf do not acquire language at the time when physical and mental powers are budding into activity, but at a later period; hence it cannot bear a similar and equal relation to those powers, and there must be modifications in the manner of its development.

"They cannot, from their limitations, receive the sensations of language in an aural manner. The senses by which such sensations are received are not those designed by nature for the purpose, hence to flood language upon them in the same plenitude as naturally serves to develop it in hearing children would be to overwhelm them, and leave them struggling in a whirlpool of words of none of

which they might clutch hold. The mass of words must be reduced to correspond, in some degree, with the abnormal conditions, so far as his power to recognize and select these are concerned. To some extent the principle of selection must be exercised for him—though this must not be interpreted as an arbitrary or constant procedure. The nature of language used in teaching must be intelligently chosen in order to avoid confusion, and burdening memory with meaningless symbols."

The reader of this book feels that the author has been over every step of the long, thorny road:

"The fullest experience is necessary to the facile appreciation and use of language: but the difficulty, if not impossibility, of equalizing the experience of the deaf with that of the hearing requires that the issues should be more clearly defined, the steps of learning more symmetrically and systematically ordered, and the influence of the teacher more intimately exerted, especially during the time that a knowledge of elementary language forms is being acquired. They depend more upon tuition, but this should always be conducted with a view to leading the child to discover knowledge for himself. The full influence of accuracy of expression should be admitted, for, as Dean Alford says, 'If the way in which men express their thoughts is slip-shod and mean, it will be very difficult to prevent their thoughts themselves being the same.' A keener, clearer insight into the workings of the mind is imperative in the teacher of deaf children; a deeper sympathy with the child, a closer relation and a fuller sense of vocation."

Mr. Story admits two "methods of expression" as available for the instruction of the deaf—speech and finger spelling. Of writing he says:

"We do not regard writing as a primary mode of intercourse or of teaching. It lacks the element of direct

personal spontaneity, and cannot be considered sufficiently active or impressive for conversational purposes."

To a small number of teachers (may their tribe increase!) it will seem a great pity that a book which deserves to be placed in the hands of every young teacher of the deaf should dismiss so lightly, not to say contemptuously, the most important and the most universal means of communication used by educated deaf men and women the world over. Certain facts in connection with the dependence of adult deaf-mutes upon written language will not down. The hearing world is, always has been, and always will be too busy, too careless, and too easily bored either to cater to lip-reading and artificial articulation or to use and read the manual alphabet. Outside of a very limited circle of relatives and friends the average deaf man or woman must depend upon pencil and paper in all general social and business relations. The testimony of graduates from oral and combined-system schools, and the testimony of nine-tenths of disinterested hearing persons brought into contact with the adult deaf, is almost unanimous upon this point. Most outsiders will wait patiently and pityingly for a deaf *child* to finish his stammering sentence—will pause to try to make out the letters spelled on fast-flying little fingers. But deaf men and women are no more interesting to outsiders than any other class of grown-ups. Accuracy and speed are the governing laws of modern life. Writing is a far quicker and surer method of communication between the great majority of the deaf (no matter by what system they are educated) than any other. The corollary is too obvious, then, to be dwelt on. Writing should be used as a "primary mode of intercourse and instruction."

Mr. Story's assertion that "writing lacks the element of direct personal spontaneity, and cannot be considered sufficiently active or impressive for conversational pur-

poses," is disproved daily in some schoolrooms. The truth is that whether any method of communication is "active and impressive" or not depends wholly on the teacher. There are teachers who could probably carry a class on successfully by making hieroglyphics in the air with a broomstick all day long should they choose to teach by so unusual a method. Given a teacher who believes, heart and soul, in written language, there will be no difficulty on the score of "activity and impressiveness." Many of us have seen a perfectly listless deaf class speedily transformed into an eager band of indefatigable little workers merely by having the walls of their schoolroom constantly covered by simple sentences which expressed what they—the children—wanted to say. Our pupils *always* care to receive, but we (God forgive us) do not always give. In an experience of almost a quarter of a century the present reviewer has never yet dealt with a deaf child so dull, so stupid, or so arrogant that he did not desire language and rejoice in its acquisition by means of the written word.

When it comes to putting in a claim for "direct personal spontaneity," quickly written and quickly read sentences, surely, have a thousand times the advantage over halting speech and uncertain lip-reading. For instance, when a little deaf football enthusiast bursting to say, "Our side beat, the score was sixteen to nothing," is held up until he can properly pronounce "sixteen" and "score" the element of "personal spontaneity" must considerably evaporate for the poor little fellow before his teacher gets through with him.

Moreover, nothing else so makes for that mental assimilation and growth for which Mr. Story admirably contends as does constant practice in using and comprehending written language from the beginning of a deaf child's education. In this connection the reviewer asks pardon

for repeating words which, in substance, she has often used before in print—which she will continue to speak in season and out of season, so long as she is able to speak at all, either by voice or pen, concerning the education of the deaf:

The deaf child likes to express himself in written sentences because they, unlike any other symbols, present his thought visibly complete. From the initial capital letter, which he makes with an ornamental flourish, to the concluding period, usually the size of a snow-ball, there it is—his work, his concept embodied by his own hand for himself and all the world to wonder at and admire. He is a creator, and values himself and his work accordingly. He cannot see the words that issue haltingly from his lips. Those made by finger-spelling must be contemplated singly. Every sane mind mind longs for wholeness—unity. The little deaf child who writes,—"I, school like new words write," is seeking exactly what the wisest philosophers have sought. He would unify his world. Thought is not thought until it is clear enough to be expressed in plain words. People who say, "I know what I mean, but cannot express it," do not know what they mean. They are either mentally lazy or willfully ignorant. The old grammatical definition, "a sentence is a thought expressed in words," has deep meaning for teachers of the deaf. We are forever lamenting that our deaf pupils do not *think*. Practice in writing and comprehending sentences is, for deaf children, exercise in thinking.

Mr. Story believes that colloquial and literary English should be taught contemporaneously. He denies the oft-made claim that the oral method of instruction possesses any advantage over manual spelling in securing a good command of idiomatic language. Both methods, he asserts, offer equal opportunities in this particular.

The author of "Language for the Deaf" bluntly asks, "Are signs necessary?" and answers the question negatively:

"Nothing can adequately supply the place of words in mental development, for orderly and related thought demands their assistance, and they are as necessary to thought, as such, as to its formulation."

And again, forcibly,—

"The association between the thought and the word must be direct and intimate. We are dealing with a natural faculty—**mind**—and aim at training it to think and formulate its thoughts in the natural way. The word must, therefore, appeal directly to the mind, and never become the reminder of a sign, and that sign the first expression of the idea. It is only in this way that the habit of thought can be induced to follow the processes of normal children, and a correct expression in language be secured. This direct connection of words with things is essential in the teaching of foreign languages by hearing children. The child who translates German or French into English in order to understand its meaning does not become really proficient in his new language, and, similarly, the deaf pupil who translates English into signs, instead of directly grasping its meaning, is even far more severely handicapped in his struggle for the mastery of language."

Mr. Story, however, would allow free use of "natural gestures" in the schoolroom. These, he declares, are helpful rather than harmful to the child's language progress.

While conceding the general soundness of Mr. Story's attitude toward the use of signs in the classroom some teachers will ask: "If we are justified in allowing the 'natural gestures' of each child, why not save time by employing a conventional sign, known to the entire class, whenever a gesture seems needed to facilitate comprehension?"

It is highly improbable that signs are to-day *taught* by

the teacher in any classroom. Children learn signs from one another on the playground and in the playroom. It is also highly improbable that there exists in all the world a single oral school whose pupils have not, and do not use among themselves, a well-understood language of signs. "Why, then," some teachers will ask, "should not these playground and playroom signs which our oralist friends label 'natural gestures' be the meaningful motions of the really eloquent language of conventional signs, rather than a hodgepodge of pantomime originated by the immature imaginations of the children themselves?"

Unquestionably, all good teachers of English, in the higher grades, deplore and discourage the use of signs in the schoolroom, except under pressure of necessity. But deploring and discouraging in no whit alters the fact that until water runs up-hill and oak trees grow with their roots in the air deaf children *will* make signs. Isolate the deaf child, blindfold him, tie him—he will still find a way to express himself through motions. Resignation on our own part, then, or chloroform for the deaf child are the two alternatives which confront us. It is a case where a stubborn and inevitable condition knocks a desirable, even a reasonable, theory into flinders.

Mr. Story's remarks on "the importance of reading" are most valuable. He discourages reading aloud on the ground that it is unreasonable to call on deaf children to exercise voice control, correct articulation, and mental application at the same moment. He lays stress on the cultivation of the imagination, advocates school libraries and reading-rooms, and would, wherever possible, have the children own some of the books they read. He would have a museum connected with the reading-room.

Grammar, geography, arithmetic, and manual training all come in for a share of attention in this comprehensive little book, but all—even manual training—are held contributory to the main object—language.

"Is a course of lessons in language necessary? asks Mr. Story. He maintains that it is:

"We do not desire in any way to minimize the importance of continually speaking or spelling to the child. We place a high value upon such constant intercourse; but we feel that something more is required than merely to talk or spell. A definite purpose must underlie all instruction, and the very complexity of English, even disregarding the difficulties of its vocal production, requires some orderly arrangement so as to avoid the confusion which must result if the practice of 'throwing language' at the child in the hope that some of it will be 'picked up' be adopted. 'A language such as English,' he quotes from Max Müller, 'does not tumble down from the sky; and, even if it did, it would have to be picked up, and to pick up a language is not a very easy task, particularly for a person supposed to be dumb and without any idea of what language is meant for.' "

There is so much in this book that is good that one would like to quote the greater part of every page. Clearness, conviction, common-sense, and scientific insight mark the work as a whole. The "principles of its methods explained" are summed up by the author:

"1. The direct and immediate association of words with their corresponding ideas.

"2. The paramount necessity for providing the child with the fullest experience of conversational language forms.

"3. The commensurate valuation of the literary or written forms in their influence in the child's development in intelligence and expression."

In four well-planned series Mr. Story gives outlines of lessons dealing with the grammatical forms of English construction. Information lessons are interspersed. To a few teachers, perhaps, these "information lessons" may

savor a bit too much of Herbert Spencer. The book as a whole, in fact, is strictly utilitarian. But utility, in this workaday world, must precede æsthetics. No one who reads Mr. Story's preface carefully can for a moment doubt that he gives abundantly to his classes that higher inspiration which we call culture.

The aim of the first series of lessons is:

"1. To furnish the pupil with a fairly extensive vocabulary of simple words, which he may be able to associate in suitable groups, each represented by some generic term or heading permitting of intelligent classification.

"2. To put the pupil in the intelligent possession of some of the simpler sentence constructions required in every-day life; such sentences being built up from the simple word forms of their counterparts in thought. While it is not expected that the child, during the teaching of the lessons comprised in this section, will acquire complete facility of expression, even in the terms of the simple structures taught, in all their varied applications, it is certain that he will become conversant with the use of many forms from which greater fluency in the practical application of language may subsequently be developed.

"3. To cultivate the habit of observation, to develop intelligence in every possible way, and to endow intelligence with the power of expression through language."

A scheme of verb forms and headings is given in the order in which Mr. Story believes they should be taught. All the primary stumbling blocks are met in this first series—the twin enemies "ask" and "tell," personal pronouns, the most common interrogatives, etc. The amount of careful thought given to the lessons in these "Outlines" is amazing. The experienced teacher will look in vain for an omission of some difficult construction or idiomatic form.

"In the second series," says Mr. Story, "the lessons are

designed to extend the pupil's vocabulary; to classify its elements under the abstract terms representing them; to associate the simple ideas already expressed in the terms of the present, with the ideas of time, past or to come; to state such association in the verb forms and extensions required for clear expression, and to prepare for their further expansion into advanced forms in a later series."

It will be noticed that throughout all these lessons Mr. Story not only shows what to do but explains clearly why he does it—a pedagogic combination often used by mathematicians, but all too rarely by language teachers. It will be observed, also, that each step of the outline work is based on a philosophic principle. In the second series the three primary tenses of the verb and their expansion receive chief attention. Special lessons at this point deal with dialogue form, obligations of a moral kind, words showing place, position, direction, etc.

The third series marks a distinct advance in thought. The idea of comparison is elaborated. Indirect methods of teaching are more used. In short, this is one of the most interesting stages of instruction. The children have reached a development which makes them eager for more light—have reached a point where they will proudly boast, "We are having *hard* lessons now."

In the fourth series more analytical work is done than in any of the preceding series. Reading is depended upon as an aid. Specific directions are given which the teacher of advanced pupils will find helpful.

An appendix to the book presents a "Scheme of Geography" and a "Scheme of Arithmetic." Both are good.

A unique feature in connection with the "Outlines of Lessons" is a blank sheet of paper after each printed page whereon the teacher may record his own class needs, experiences, suggestions, or criticisms. Somehow these blank pages have a sentimental value. For an author of

a pedagogical work to make room within the covers of his book for anybody's opinions but his own is a new thing under the sun.

Another bit of sentiment will come to the American teacher from the title-page and the dedication. He to whom his intellectual kinship with the old mother country is precious (and to every good teacher of English such kinship must be inestimably dear) will like "Stoke-upon-Trent." He will be absurdly glad that the philanthropist to whom the book is dedicated, Edward Venables Greatbatch, lives in "Jasper House." These thoroughly English names strike deep chords, for the crowning joy of teaching language to the deaf comes when our pupils are so far advanced that we and they may live daily with the great ones who have made English literature what it is—the noblest utterance of the human mind.

May Mr. Story's kindly, broad-minded, valuable book find its way into the hands of every American teacher of the deaf from Maine to the Pacific.

SARAH HARVEY PORTER,
Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

A VIVID IMAGINATION—ITS ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES.

COMPAYRÈ regarded the imagination as but an auxiliary, accessory faculty of the intellectual life; one which merely intervenes on occasion, to aid or to impede in their development the other powers of the soul. Miss Edgeworth said: "Imagination is like a fire; a good servant, but a bad master." We, as educators, must concede that it is an integral factor in the process of intellectual development, and that only when it is too vivid or perverted does it become "an ornamental appendage to the mind, serving, like the peacock's tail, only to retard its progress."

A healthy imagination awakens thought, secures investigation and interest, and paves the way for the advantages which are to come to the child through literature and the sciences, as well as through his every-day experiences, where his hopes are nourished and idealized and where the stern realities of his life often need softening and sometimes embellishment.

In order to escape the disadvantages of a too vivid imagination and receive all of the advantages of a healthy vivid one it becomes the duty of parent and teacher to develop, regulate, and restrain this faculty. Jerome Allen says, "Eternal vigilance is the price of a healthy imagination culture."

It is not necessary to be constantly seeking devices to stimulate this accessory faculty, but it is most important to direct it in the right path and nourish it with well chosen, wholesome food. A child's mind offers resistance to no impressions. It is for this reason that he should come in contact with such things as are simple, delicate, and chaste, and be shielded from whatever is ugly, repulsive, and immoral.

The imagination of a child should be satisfied so far as possible, but never given over to the caprice of feeling. This often becomes antagonistic to the pursuit of knowledge. A youthful mind, surfeited with the wonders of romance, often grows discontented with its prosaic surroundings and morally unfit for the duties awaiting it.

A well-tempered vivid imagination is advantageous in many ways and quite necessary for equipoise of character, while its excess is most detrimental to good sense, energy, and rectitude of conduct.

One cannot temper an exalted and inflamed imagination by attacking it, but if it is surrounded by wholesome and nourishing aliment it is not so apt to go in search of questionable food. This aliment should consist of grains

of vigorous reasoning and morsels of judicious reflection. The mind should be kept so occupied that neither this fault nor the vicious tendency of habitual revery can be indulged in. They become a disease of the intelligence, the symptoms of which we can readily recognize in the child's habits of vague contemplation, indolence, and listlessness. When such a hopeless condition has been brought about we can agree with Pascal that the imagination is "the enemy of reason," "the mistress of error and falsehood."

All philosophers, save Rousseau, are in accord in recognizing the fact that the imagination is most powerful in its development in early childhood. Compayrè says that we can conceive of a man without imagination, but many of us would think finding a man or even a normal child without it almost as difficult as Diogenes's quest for an honest man.

A child possessing but little imagination is said to be "queer" and naturally we pity him for losing so much of the nursery joy and jingle.

The power of imitation springs from a vivid imagination and leads a child to attempt the actions, mannerisms, and appearance which he sees in others. In this line the deaf child usually surpasses his hearing brother. Being a natural pantomimist he can "take off" Miss B., imitating the attitude, gestures, and personal characteristics of that important personage, and a few minutes later with equal alacrity and ability he is converted into Miss G. The short, quick steps are now lengthened and each action is performed with the deliberation and precision seen in her every movement.

Two little deaf girls of nine or ten proved themselves quite capable of performing the ritualistic service of their church, using things at hand or purely imaginative ones for the necessary appliances. This seemed done to their

own entire satisfaction as well as to that of the unknown part of their audience.

Who would wish to destroy that sweet illusion of motherhood in which the little girl is enveloped as she sits in her little rocking-chair and sings her doll to sleep? Or who would interfere with the pleasure of the "little man" who can construct an automobile, a train of cars, a steamboat, or a plain "wagon goin' to grandpa's," out of simply a row of chairs?

A vivid imagination assists a child to convert a common pine box into a throne, a glass bead into a most precious gem, a pasteboard crown into a royal diadem, and pleasing colors of cambric into raiment fit for a queen.

Toys should not be made to serve as ornaments or to be merely observed. They should be made to be played with, and the more possibilities they offer for a child's constructive activity the better they fulfil their mission.

For a little child's out-door play what can offer more alluring joys than simply a heap of sand, a pail, and a shovel? Imagination helps the hands to construct houses, barns, fences, rivers, and even mountains, and when the novelty of their possession has worn off, to create floods and storms for their destruction—leaving the same material intact for further imaginative projects the next day.

The imaginary conversations which our "little tots" often carry on with inanimate objects are at times most amusing, and sometimes seem almost akin to the mythical beliefs of our barbaric ancestors.

It is perhaps well to distinguish two of the principal forms of the imagination, without entering into the scientific phases of their subdivisions. They are termed the Representative and the Creative. The Representative imagination is scarcely more than vivid memory—the power to recall with the eyes closed what has really been seen. The Creative is the genuine imagination. It

invents and combines under new forms the images borrowed from memory, yet it owes its often brilliant destiny to the fact that it was rocked in the humble cradle of the former. A vivid Representative imagination quickly pictures the forms of the letters of the alphabet, entire words, and even lines as they left their impress upon the mind. How often in spelling a word orally we are obliged to picture the letters forming it in this way. In drawing objects, maps, and later even in the propositions in geometry, we find a vivid Representative imagination of great value. It is a direct source of acquisition along many other lines and "it peoples our consciousness and heart with a world of images and recollections."

In order to imagine well it is necessary for the child to see well, that is, to get clear sense impressions—not a confused and vaguely conceived hotchpotch of ideas. These would tend only to obscure and confuse the imagination. A child should conceive clearly and distinctly what the senses perceive and be able to recall not only what has been seen, but to represent the things which have not been seen. When this is done the imagination becomes a most useful instrument of intuition. A child can conceive a mental picture of a person, place, or object from a simple verbal description. It is his ability to do this which we so much desire when we spread before him the panoramas of geography and history, and without which these branches become lessons repeated, memorized, and recited—leaving a permanent sum total of nil.

Jerome Allen says, "Geography is not a description of the earth's surface. It is a mental conception of a part or all of it. What we can see by the aid of the imagination is geography, all else is words." "History is the twin sister of geography. In fact it would be impossible to study history without its aid. True history consists of pictures in the mind, for history is but a series of pictures."

Memory has its great function to perform, but its handmaiden in these two branches is surely the imagination.

All verbal descriptions should involve a process of gradually reducing lifeless generalities to a living concrete form. A teacher has every right to clothe the dry bones of history with flesh as well as to use brilliant coloring in painting her own views of distant places. The mental pictures taken from his words are not often gotten from the printed page. This truth is shown by the story-loving little ones, who though they have mastered the nursery literature beg you to *tell* them a story.

Pictures are one of the most accessible means for developing the Representative imagination and should form a most important factor in its culture. They serve to secure the attention, to make lessons attractive, and later on to give appreciation of the artistic qualities which they represent. Unless the imagination is vivid enough to play its part in the use of pictures they are of little or no service. If from its past experiences in discernment the mind cannot see the picture transformed into a living, active, full-sized horse, or the rose changed into the moist, velvety, and fragrant flower, it is little more than so much black and white or so many pretty colors which please the eye.

Nature study opens up a world of by-paths in which the child can safely wander. The formation of the clouds, rain, and snowflakes, the flow of the sap in the plants, the budding of the leaves, the ways of different animals, the color, form, and perfume on every side, each in its way adds its share and helps to form the prelude of the beautiful myths and legends of folk-lore, poetry, and song.

The Creative or constructive imagination acts, invents, arranges, according to its fancy, magnifies, contracts, modifies in a thousand ways the elements it borrows

from reality, and groups the images furnished by the observation and memory in accordance with an ideal which it conceives.

A child with a vivid Creative imagination is delighted with the inventions of others, yet his keenest appreciation is of his own constructions. This is shown in the arrangement of his playthings, in his drawings, and after a while in the imaginary compositions which he writes. Naturally the child who has seen and heard most has at his disposal more material which can be utilized in new combinations and constructions than his less favored brother. Let the child go to the circus, to the country, and if possible travel to different places.

Fairy tales have their rightful place in a child's imagination and should bring their full share of enjoyment. We are cautioned to "be slow to dissipate their shadows and phantoms." They are not falsehoods and a child is not deceived by them, even though at times he may be frightened instead of amused. Imaginary stories are the ideal—something often more true and beautiful than the actual truth. All stories should be carefully chosen and everything which is gross or in bad form scrupulously avoided. When given in the right way they become an incentive to study as well as a preparation for the understanding of real poetry.

Literature is full of material for imagination culture, and wise is the parent or teacher who places "Little Red Riding Hood," "Robinson Crusoe," "Alice in Wonderland," Hans Christian Andersen's "Fairy Tales," "Arabian Nights," etc., in the hands of an interested child. Later on, Washington Irving's and Fenimore Cooper's works, Scott's novels, "The Last Days of Pompeii," and many others are excellent.

A child is usually given the purely fictitious stories first. The next to follow should be the narratives which

are truthfully exact. In presenting these it is well to use the language of the imagination—that is to speak in words which have color. Stern facts are embellished and animated by vivid word-painting and brilliant coloring.

The realities of life furnish no end of material which is useful along this line. The lives of such men as George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Julius Cæsar, etc., who have played their part on the great stage of the world, are of infinite educational value.

Imagination makes history intelligible. The child should see a series of pictures passing before his mind's eye and his thoughts should dwell upon them. The portraits help to form the interesting figures, and the geographical location where the events occurred, the background.

Romances are the fairy tales of mature age. Those placed in the hands of children should be selected with great caution and they should be given with other purposes in view than to be merely entertaining.

There is perhaps no one who owes so much to a strong, healthy, and vivid imagination as Helen Keller, and no one more aware of this fact than she herself. In "A Chat About the Hand," she says (in part):

"Without imagination what a poor thing my world would be! My garden would be a silent patch of earth strewn with sticks of a variety of shapes and smells. But when the eye of my mind is opened to its beauty, the bare ground brightens beneath my feet, and the hedgerows burst into leaf, and the rose-tree shakes its fragrance everywhere. I know what the budding trees look like and I enter into the amorous joy of the mating birds, and this is the miracle of the imagination."

CAROLINE R. SMITH,
Instructor in the Pennsylvania Institution,
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J. L. Noyes.

JONATHAN LOVEJOY NOYES.

Our friend has passed
Into the silence that will know no breaking;
Our mourning and our sadness do not reach him;
He lies, in perfect stillness folded closely,
And slumbers without waking.

His spirit lives
In many a high ideal and sense of duty,
The light of hope ashine in many lives,
And these shall form, more than a sculptured marble,
His monument of beauty.

AGATHA TIEGEL HANSON,
Seattle, Washington.

THE Noyes family is of Norman-English stock, the Norman form of the name having been Noye. The founder of the American branch of the family was Rev. James Noyes, who settled in Massachusetts in 1634. Members of the family played an important and honorable part in Colonial affairs. Moses Noyes, the grandfather of the subject of this sketch, fought bravely in the French and Indian War and also in the Revolution. He was one of that band of sturdy patriots who withstood the British regulars on the memorable day of Concord and Lexington.

Jonathan Lovejoy Noyes was born at Windham, New Hampshire, June 13, 1827. His boyhood was passed in the exacting toil required to wrest a subsistence from the stony soil of the Granite State. At the age of fourteen he entered Phillips Academy at Andover, where he spent one year at his father's expense. But his father's straitened circumstances did not permit him to assist further. Noth-

ing daunted, the boy, with the energy and determination that characterized his whole life, found means to complete his course at Andover by working on the farm during the summer and teaching school during the winter. He entered Yale College in 1848, took the regular course, and graduated in 1852, with the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Later the degree of Master of Arts was conferred upon him by his Alma Mater, and that of Doctor of Humane Letters by Gallaudet College, in recognition of his eminent work in the cause of the education of the deaf.

Dr. Noyes began his life work among the deaf in the fall of 1852, when he was appointed a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution at Philadelphia. It was his intention, at first, merely to engage in the work until he earned means to take a course in theology and enter the ministry. But his mind and heart were drawn toward the deaf, and a field of usefulness opened before him, in which he decided to labor. After six years spent in Philadelphia, he accepted an offer from the Louisiana School at Baton Rouge, and taught there for two years, from 1858 till 1860. He succeeded so well that he was offered the superintendency of the school; but the Civil War breaking out just then, the school was closed, and Dr. Noyes returned to the North. He was offered, and accepted, a place in the American School at Hartford, then known as the American Asylum. There he taught for six years. Among his pupils during this time were Samuel T. Greene, Louis C. Tuck, Robert D. Livingston, Elmina D. Clapp (Mrs. W. E. Dean). In 1862 he was united in marriage with Miss Eliza Hall Wadsworth, a lineal descendant of Captain Wadsworth of Charter Oak fame, and who was at the time a teacher in the school at Hartford.

In 1866 there came to Dr. Noyes the opportunity for the exercise of those qualities of mind and character

which later distinguished him,—an opportunity that might never have come if he had remained a teacher only. In 1863 the young State of Minnesota had started a school for the deaf and the blind, with a mere handful of pupils and in an old wooden building. Three years later, the position of Superintendent becoming vacant, the Board of Directors offered the place to Dr. Noyes. He came West, and after looking the ground over he decided to accept, and thus began his great work for the deaf of Minnesota, which continued for the full period of thirty years. Under his able and energetic administration the school grew and flourished, until it was recognized as one of the foremost in the country.

On the day of the reopening of school in the fall of 1893, Dr. Noyes was suddenly attacked by lesion of the brain. He was granted one year's leave of absence, and resumed active charge of the school in 1894, continuing it until the spring of 1896, when he finally retired from the work in which he had been engaged for forty-four years in all. For nine years following he lived quietly in Faribault, in the beautiful and comfortable home designed for him by one of his own deaf graduates, who had become a successful architect. The end came suddenly. Dr. Noyes attended church on Sunday as usual, and Monday morning he went down to the post-office for the mail. At dinner his wife and daughter noticed nothing in his appearance or behavior to alarm them. They say that he seemed a little brighter than usual. About two o'clock he went downstairs, intending to do some light work on the lawn. Shortly after he was found sitting in a chair in the basement with his heart stilled forever. The funeral services were held at the home the following Wednesday, and they were of a simple and beautiful nature. As was fitting, and in accordance with what would have been his wish, he was borne to his last resting-place, reverently

and tenderly, by six of the deaf among whom he had spent the greater part of his life, and for whom he had done so much. In beautiful Maple Lawn Cemetery now rests all that was mortal of the best and truest friend that the deaf of Minnesota have ever had.

Physically Dr. Noyes was a perfect specimen of manhood, standing six feet tall, with a full and erect figure, and a firm, elastic step. These, with his broad forehead, strong features, and piercing gray eye, impressed all who saw him with a sense of the power and force of character of the man. His was a personality to command attention and respect in any gathering of which he formed a part. He was always dignified in his bearing, and his features, when in repose, bore an aspect of seeming sternness that repelled familiarity. Even those who knew him best and loved him most, who had gauged the depth of his kind and generous heart, could not approach him without some sense of awe. But no man was more social by nature than he, and no one enjoyed more thoroughly congenial association with his fellow men. He could enter most heartily into the spirit of a social gathering and contribute no small part to the enjoyment of those present. He had a strong sense of humor, provided that it was of the right kind and free from the taint of vulgarity.

In his habits, Dr. Noyes was strictly temperate. Tobacco or liquor never passed his lips. He abhorred profanity and vulgar language. His old pupils remember vividly how impressive his temperance talks in the chapel were.

Energy was a predominant trait of his character. In himself he was a striking example of the "strenuous life." He exacted the full amount of work from those under him, and set the example by working harder than any one else. Many a night, when others were resting, Dr. Noyes could be seen in his office until late, completing his own day's work. His sense of duty was so strong

that it impelled him to do things which other men in his position would have delegated to others. In the earlier days of the school, before a night watchman was employed, Dr. Noyes himself made the rounds of the boys' dormitories every night, carrying a small lantern, to see that all was well before he himself retired.

He was a strict disciplinarian, but never harsh or unjust. He inquired fully into an offense before he passed judgment and inflicted punishment. Though stern and severe when dealing with an offense, no one could be more merciful and forgiving if the offender appeared repentant and sought forgiveness. His power in dealing with refractory pupils was almost marvellous. Rebellious boys who openly defied their teacher, after a talk with Dr. Noyes in his office would return meekly to their schoolroom and ask their teacher's pardon.

Dr. Noyes's devotion to the deaf was without bounds and thoroughly unselfish. When he wrote to the Board of Directors from Hartford, accepting the superintendency of the Minnesota School, he closed hs letter with the following words:

"Let us now join hands in this great and good work; let us stand shoulder to shoulder, and heart to heart, in advancing the cause of deaf-mute education and humanity in Minnesota."

In giving up his home and friends in the East to take up pioneer work in Minnesota, he himself and all his friends felt that he was acting in opposition to his material interests. But he obeyed the call of duty as he understood it. It was enough for him to see before him, beckoning him on, the possibility of a broader sphere of usefulness to the deaf. As Superintendent he was always accessible to the pupils. They went to him as they would to a father, with all their petty troubles, and he was never too busy to lay down his pen and listen patiently to the

little ones, cheer them up and encourage them, and send them away happy. He was punctilious to the verge of quixotism in answering letters from graduates or former pupils of the school. No matter how trifling the letter, how obscure and ignorant the writer, Dr. Noyes would answer the letter with his own hand, putting in some word of comfort or inspiration. Many a Saturday he spent hours in making a supply of gas in order that he might entertain the children with a stereopticon exhibition in the evening.

Dr. Noyes was a thorough gentleman in his manners. His courtesy was unfailing, and it was shown to all alike, whether humble or exalted. The simplest deaf child who rendered him a trifling favor received as courteous a "Thank you" as was given to his equals in society.

He was unquestionably great in many of those qualities which go to make up true manhood. Yet there was in his nature nothing of self-conscious pride. Though ever ready to stand firmly for what he believed to be right, he was modest about putting himself forward. If there was work to be done, and it fell in his way to do it, he did it, whether the work was great or small. Often we saw him walk down town and return carrying the mail bag, as simply and naturally as if it were the proper thing for the Superintendent to officiate as mail carrier.

Dr. Noyes was a Christian in all that the word implies. What he professed he practiced in so far as man is able. His faith in the love and guidance of an over-ruling Providence was sincere. In all his dealings with his fellow men he was guided by Christian principles. Charity invariably ruled his judgment of the words and deeds of others. Malice and scandal found no lodgment in his soul. One of his favorite Bible passages was that beautiful chapter on charity, I Corinthians xiii.

Mrs. Noyes and her daughter have received many

letters from all over the country, tendering sympathy, and expressing appreciation of the departed. We are permitted to quote a few passages from those who were, at one time, associated with Dr. Noyes:

"He was a man so truly devoted to his chosen work that his example was an inspiration to others. Such beautiful courtesy and patience, such magnificent fidelity! He gave himself—his best—so freely and cheerfully. * * * His life—a long, worthy, willing service rendered to His 'little ones.' "

"How the deaf of Minnesota will mourn! They will never have another such friend. Still, a life like Dr. Noyes's is far-reaching. Its influence never ends. He was the most unselfish man I ever knew. * * * He was such an inspiration to his teachers."

"I shall remember him as I knew him in the school, and shall always be glad that in those early years of my teaching I was associated with such a man."

"I shall always believe that the high character of the deaf in your State is largely due to the stamp that he put upon it."

"His was a life to pattern after—a life full of good deeds and noble purposes accomplished. The results of his life work can never be measured, but will go on increasing to the end of time."

Governor J. S. Pillsbury, himself one of the greatest and best of Minnesotans, said of Dr. Noyes when he heard of his breakdown in 1893:

"He is as good a man as God ever made. He is one of Nature's noblemen. I have not been Governor of Minnesota for four years and not known that."

The buildings of the Minnesota School for the Deaf will, as long as they stand, be a monument to the memory of Jonathan Lovejoy Noyes. He was present when the first stone was laid, and he watched the great buildings

rise one after another as the years passed. But he has a nobler and more enduring monument, built up of the love and reverence felt for him by the hundreds of deaf men and women of Minnesota whom his noble life and its labors have benefited.

"His life was gentle, and the elements
So mixed in him that Nature might stand up
And say to all the world, 'This was a man.'"

JAMES L. SMITH,
Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

GEOGRAPHY.

SEVENTY-FIVE years ago men held very vague ideas of the size and shape of the earth and where places were. The mere mention that the Russian fleet was in the China Sea would at that time have meant no more than if it were at the north pole. Since that time railroads, telegraphs, long distance telephones, cables, and steamers have made it possible to learn a great deal about the earth. Hence the innumerable text-books which have been written from various viewpoints.

In 1893 the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association appointed a committee of fifteen to consider and report upon the studies and methods of instruction in the elementary schools. Their estimate as to the value of Geography is as follows:

"The educational value of geography, as it is and has been in elementary schools, is obviously very great. It makes possible something like accuracy in the picturing of distant places and events and removes from the mind a large tract of mere superstition. * * * The general knowledge of the locations and boundaries of nations, of their status in civilization, and their natural advantages for contributing to the world market, is of great use to

the citizen in forming correct ideas for his daily reading. * * * Neither the newspaper nor the book can influence an illiterate people; they can do little to form opinions when the readers have no knowledge of geography." This committee placed geography next in value to arithmetic.

Dr. Harris calls geography "the second window of the mind, through which a person learns of the organic world and its relations to the human race and to himself individually. * * * Think of one as not possessed of these distinctions in his mind, and see what imbecility would result in dealing with the world. Shut up the geographical window of the soul, and what darkness ensues."

In the work of teaching the deaf we say rightly that the learning of language is paramount in order that they may get along in the battle of life; but we must all remember that a child learns language in every study, unless we are so far behind the times as to consider that mechanical addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division make up the sum total of arithmetic, that learning a whole string of dates is history, that memorizing grammatical definitions is the all in all of language, and that knowing the mere names of every continent, ocean, sea, bay, gulf, river, island, peninsula, cape, and city in the world would be geography. While these should be taught, they must be the *means* in the hands of the teacher to get at more important ideas. There are different expressions brought out by every study by means of which the pupil may gain in language at every step.

The purpose of studying geography is to learn about man and his environment; his influence on his surroundings and *vice versa:* the earth as man's abode. To this end there are several essential subjects to be studied—the surface of the land, the bodies of water, plants, animals, minerals, and climate. Climate is the hinge by which

we correlate a country and its products. Climate is the secret by which we understand the distribution of plants and animals. To understand climate we must study to determine the relation of the earth to the sun's heat in the effect of the different zones and seasons; whether a land is mountainous or low and level; how the climate is affected by bodies of water, as streams, lakes, oceans, and ocean currents; and the changes made by the presence or absence of trade winds. To gather the relation of all of these great forces; to see their relation to the plant and animal life; to understand man's uses of these forces and the products of the earth; and to understand the industries and life of man as a resultant: that is geography.

The test of value for every teacher to apply to any subject in hand is, as one says, "the available usefulness to the student in his probable future environment." That involves the subject matter to be taught and the method of teaching it.

Knowledge of place and relative directions are the first essentials to knowing the earth in itself. In our work two questions need to be made clear to the deaf child's mind: In what direction is ——— from ———? and In what part of ——— is ———? They are the beginning of the numerous questions brought out in map study. Good map reading later on depends on the correct understanding of direction and place. The plan should be a broadening out from the local points of interest to the State, with its cities, towns, rivers, surface, products, industries, and climate; and from the State to world study in its most general outlines; then to detail work in map study, products, climate, and industries. Assigning the study of State geography to the fourth year's work, we may cover this general world work in six months' time and begin the detail work of our own continent.

It is absolutely necessary in the beginning of the study

of the earth in general that the pupils should perfectly understand the meanings of the new geographical terms. Then, by our choice of questions, they should learn the shape of the earth, its relation to the heavenly bodies, the positions of the bodies of land and water, and the surface of the earth in general, before going too deeply into details, else the children will be filled with a mass of names that mean nothing to them. A globe, such as is used in the schools for the blind, showing the land surface, would be the best thing to have in the schoolroom. After the general relations of the land and water surfaces are well fixed in mind, climate should be introduced in its most general character, leading on to show how the plants and animals of any section depend a great deal on the climate. Now the children are ready to study in detail the continents and countries of the world.

So much for the general plan of the subject matter. Now for a few words on some methods of presenting the subject of geography.

In the study of the earth itself, of course, maps, both political and relief, and globes, political and, if possible, relief, are necessary to explain thoroughly the relations of the land and water surfaces. Besides the hand maps with all necessary names on them, there should be wall maps, drawn in colors showing every country and without names. On all new work answers should be required in writing, and then have the pupils show how they reached their conclusions by pointing to the places on the wall map and on the globe*. But all this map work is only a prelude to the more important things.

In teaching the products, the best thing is to have samples of the raw and by-products and pictures. Let the pictures illustrate not only the product but the work

* Have the carpenter make a wooden globe and set it up. Then make a raised map of the world in putty upon it.

connected with the product. Take, for instance, the articles that have been published in *The World's Work* and *Cosmopolitan* on the various industries. I have seen no better illustrations of the work with cotton, silk, coal, wheat, lumber, glassmaking, pottery, etc., than are portrayed in these magazines. If possible, fasten all the articles about each subject on a cardboard, making it handy to pass around the class. Such topical work is productive of thought and brings out a great deal of language, because it is so interesting. For example, let us take the topic of cotton. What is the cotton plant? Where does it grow? What kind of climate is best suited for it? Is it planted every year? When do the farmers plant cotton? When does it bloom? What color is the blossom? What do the bolls contain? When is cotton picked? What do they do first with the raw cotton? To gin means what? What is done with the loose lint? Where is it sent finally? Into what is it woven? Name some cotton cloths. What are done with the cotton seeds? What is cotton-seed oil used for? So we may take up the other products and show how they create industries and are used by man. Let me speak further of the absolute need that every school should have a museum, showing even the commonest of products and their by-products. No doubt other teachers have had pupils ask if these two questions did not mean the same thing: What is flour made of? What is made of flour? The three samples of some grains of wheat, flour, and a piece of bread would show them the distinctions. Again, the subject of minerals is harder to grasp than farm crops; for instance, pupils have brought up such answers as "Men mine stoves, radiators, and hardware," instead of understanding that the crude iron ore is dug out in the form of red earth. Besides the pictures and objects, have geographical readers to be read out of school hours, and one will

sometimes be pleasantly surprised by ultra-text-book answers.

Thirdly, in regard to method, make comparisons between climates; between plant life in similar and different lands and climates; between animals of similar and different climates; between ways of living in the various lands; between the amounts of products of one country over against another. After teaching the United States begin on Europe and make comparisons, showing the pupils the similarities and differences. In the same way next treat South America and the other continents. In the study of Asia we find some new problems leading up to the adaptation of places of the earth for the abode of man. In telling the height of some mountain, make the comparison to the distance from the institution to some point and tell them to turn it straight up. Use the pupils' imaginations. Similarly compare the size of an ocean steamer. Six hundred feet means nothing to them until it is measured. The capacity of a steamer means more in comparison with so many carloads. An acre means no more than a square foot until it is measured off on the lawn. The great aim is to make them think, and not simply to memorize a statement which is not understood. The geography teacher who can draw is indeed fortunate, as he then has another way of explanation.

Draw maps, not for the sake of the map, but to illustrate the surface and drainage of a country and where the main cities are; to show where various products grow best; to impress on the mind a picture of where the factories and mills are mostly located.

In order to bring out different language from that of the text-book in the descriptive work, I have made it a rule to use at different recitations various questions and require the pupils to write what they have studied in the new form of the questions. Thus they get two or more

sentences expressing the same idea, one as learned from the text-book, and the others learned in the classroom. The old method of giving question and answer lessons can never conduce to freedom of language in expressing one's ideas.

One runs across some funny ideas lurking in the corners of children's brains. On one occasion while teaching the idea of a sphere, they all agreed that the earth resembled a ball and was a sphere, being accustomed to seeing the globe on the desk and examining it to verify ideas gained from the maps in their books, but they thought that the sun, moon, and stars could hardly be spheres. One boy expressed the opinion that the sun and moon were round with flat sides like a grindstone, and the stars could not possibly be round since they were five-pointed. Still he thought it very strange that the moon was not always round. The phenomenon of gravity was illustrated by a horse-shoe magnet. Then they realized that the people on the other side of the world did not have to stand on their heads. They never thought but that the Chinaman was always on the under side of the world and that we were always right side up. Later on I thought I had explained thoroughly how we recognized the boundary lines between States and between countries when there were no water boundaries, but discovered that one or two girls thought the boundary line must be a fence which even turned rivers from their courses. This was in answer to the question, "Why do not the rivers of Canada flow south to the Gulf of Mexico?" to bring out the thought of the surface of the land. Hence the answer that there was a fence between the United States and Canada.

The teacher should ever keep before him through all his work some end that he is reaching after. In the study of geography may we not take for our main objective the facts of the earth and how man utilizes them to make

his living? With that before our eyes, all the map studies, the learning of products, the industries, with all the whys and wherefores, will tend to lead toward the purpose for which the earth was created, man. As one has said, "Any one that would excel in teaching geography must know not only the surface of the earth, but also what is occurring there; he must be familiar with the forces that are operating, with the laws that regulate their action, with the effects produced by these forces, and the uses to which their products can be put."

In conclusion let me quote Sir Archibald Geikie. Speaking of geography, he says: "The teacher must be content patiently and thoroughly to master his subject. He should begin by divesting himself of the common notion that the teaching of geography can be taken up by anybody at pleasure. When he has realized what geography in the true sense is, he will recognize that to make satisfactory use of it for the purposes of instruction demands qualifications of no mean or ordinary kind. He will see that a wide range of reading is absolutely necessary to him, and that he must equip himself with a store of illustrations gathered from all departments of knowledge which will enable him to elucidate each subject as it arises. This is the ideal of geography teaching, and until some approach to it is reached, I cannot believe that geography will take the place it is entitled to in our educational system."

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WHAT IT COSTS TO EDUCATE THE DEAF IN SWEDEN.

In the *Annals* for January, 1904, there is an article by Mr. P. N. Peterson, dealing with the above question. Some of the statements in this article call for correction.

Among other things Mr. Peterson gives a short description of the organization of the instruction of the deaf in Sweden. But as this description is incomplete I beg first to give some information concerning the said organization.

For the local administration Sweden is divided into 24 counties (*län*). Each *län* is governed by a county council (*landsting*). Towns of 25,000 inhabitants and upwards are in the care of an administration separated from the *län* and have their own town councils (*stadsfullmäktige*).

The education of the deaf in Sweden is regulated by the "Act concerning the education of the deaf and dumb," of 1889. By virtue of that act Sweden is divided, for the education of the deaf, into seven school districts. The first district comprises five *län* together with the towns of Stockholm and Norrköping; the second three *län;* the third three *län* and the town of Malmö: the fourth four *län* and the town of Göteborg; the fifth two *län;* the sixth three *län* and the town of Gäfle; the seventh four *län.*

In each school district there is a school board of trustees, elected by the *landsting* and *stadsfullmäktige* concerned. For each full number of 90,000 inhabitants one member is elected. The number of members in a school board accordingly is not unalterably fixed.

The following table, taken from "*Nordisk Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan,*" Nos. 6 and 7, 1904, gives a general view of the state of the education of the deaf in Sweden.

I.—*Tabular Statement of Swedish Schools for the Deaf*, 1903–'04.

A. District schools.		Pupils.			Methods.			Number of classes.	Teachers.			Pupils per teacher.
Dis.	Location.	Total	Boys.	Girls.	Oral.	Writing	Manual.		Total.	Male.	Female	
1st	Manilla (near Stockholm),	121	66	55	79	28	14	20	17	10	7	7.1
2nd	Växjö,	91	50	41	70	12	*	10	11	4	7	8.3
3rd	Lund,	63	34	29	62	1	....	9	10	6	4	6.3
3rd	Karlskrona,	30	14	16	.....	22	8	7	5	2	3	6.0
4th	Vänersborg,	161	90	71	154	.....	†	17	18	8	10	8.9
5th	Orebro,	37	20	17	36	.....	‡	7	8	4	4	4.6
6th	Gäfle,	87	58	29	44	43	....	10	11	6	5	7.9
7th	Härnörand,	180	102	78	154	26	....	18	20	10	10	9.0
	Total children in district schools,	770	434	336	599	132	22	98	100	50	50	7.7
B.	Private schools:											
	1. Hjorted§	(17)	(8)	(9)	.....	8	9	4	3	3	....	6.3
	2. Tysta skolan at Stockholm,	24	7	17	24	.....	.....	7	5	....	5	4.8
	3. School-home for deaf-blind	6	2	4	2	2	2	6	3	....	3	2.0
	Total children of school age	800	443	357	625	142	33	115	111	53	58	7.2
C.	Institution for adult deaf at Bollnäs,	39	23	16	.....	.....	39	4	4	2	2	9.7
D.	Kindergarten school at Göteborg,											
	Total,	839	466	373	625	142	72	119	115	55	60	7.3

* 9 children transferred to Hjorted. † 7 transferred to Hjorted. ‡1 transferred to Hjorted. § This school receives feeble-minded deaf children capable of instruction from the district schools.

From the above table it appears that as a rule there is but one school in each district. The third district, forming an exception, has two schools. All the other districts have one school with one building, unless the space requires two or more buildings, which in that case are under the direction of one principal (*förestandare*), *e. g.*, at Vänersborg and Orebro.

The schools included in Table I are of four sorts:

1: District schools } for the deaf of school age.
2: Private schools }
3: School for the adult deaf.
4: Kindergarten school for the deaf.

The district schools receive a grant from the State of 250 kr. ($67.50), per pupil annually. All remaining expenses are paid by the district, *i. e.*, the concerned *landsting* and *stadsfullmäktige.*

The expenditures of the district schools are shown in Table II.

II.—*Tabular Statement of the Cost of the Education of the Deaf in Sweden,* 1903.

District.	Annual grants in kr. = $0.27.			Number of—		Number of pupils per teacher.	Annual cost per pupil.	
	From the State.	From the District.	Total.	Pupils.	Teachers.		Kr.	Dollars.
1st	30,500	53,111	83,611	121	17	7.1	691	186.60
2nd	22,625	32,951	55,576	91	11	8.3	611	164.80
3rd	23,500	55,700	79,200	93	15	6.2	852	230.00
4th	40,000	60,165	100,165	161	18	8.9	622	168.00
5th	9,125	21,933	31,058	37	8	4.6	839	226.50
6th	21,625	40,573	62,198	87	11	7.9	715	193.00
7th	45,000	46,000	91,000	180	20	9.0	505	136.40
Total	192,375	310,433	502,808	770	100	*7.7	*653	*176.30

*On an average for the whole country.

From this table it may be gathered that the expenses for the instruction of the deaf in Sweden are by no means so high as appears from Mr. Peterson's calculations. He chose the most expensive school in the whole of Sweden. Therefore he came to the result that the education of one deaf-mute in Sweden comes to 856 to 865 kr. (=$231 to $234), while in reality the expense in question varies from 505 kr. ($137) (in the seventh district), to 852 kr

($230) (in the third). *The average cost of maintenance and education of the deaf in Sweden thus amounts to about* 653 *kr.* (=$176.30), *per capita.*

As for the methods used in the Swedish deaf schools it may be noticed that there are three, viz., the oral method (speech and lip-reading together with writing), the writing method (manual alphabet and writing, thus the nearest equivalent to the American "manual alphabet method"), and the manual method (signs combined with writing).

In two of the district schools (Vänersborg and Orebro), the oral method is solely used. In the other district schools the pupils are at present (it is not always the same), divided on two or three lines: oral, writing, and manual. All three of those lines exist in merely one school (Manilla, near Stockholm). In four schools (Växjö, Lund, Gäfle, and Härnösand) there are two lines: oral and writing (in Lund there is at present but one pupil on the writing line). The Karlskrona school is organized on a writing and a manual line.

The school at Hjorted is intended for such feeble-minded deaf children as are not included in the Act of 1889, but are capable of instruction. Such children are transferred to the said school from the second, fourth, and fifth districts. The instruction is carried on by the writing and manual methods.

In the *tysta skolan* (silent school), at Stockholm, the oral method is followed.

The educational institution at Bollnäs is entirely maintained by the State and is intended for deaf persons who had passed the school age when the Act of 1889 came into operation. The manual method is used, combined with writing. This school is likely to be discontinued next year.

I do not know exactly how great the average cost *per capita* is for the education of the deaf in the more con-

spicuous American schools, but I am convinced that the sum is higher than in Sweden. Considering the limited resources placed at the disposal of a small country, much has been done for the deaf in Sweden both publicly and privately; and the education of the deaf in this country no doubt can bear comparison with that of any European country, in spite of the fact that we now must lose our pupils at the time (15–16 years of age) when their minds are awakened and the most fruitful work should begin. If we had greater resources, we should be in a position to retain our pupils some years longer than at present, and then our educational results would rise to a higher standard than is possible in the present state of things.

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AN INQUIRY INTO THE AGES OF FATHERS AND MOTHERS AT THE BIRTH OF DEAF CHILDREN.

1. Tables showing the average ages of fathers and mothers at the birth of deaf children, in connection with the sex of the children, the nature of the deafness (congenital or adventitious), and the degree of deafness.*

*These tables are taken from P. J. Fehmer's "*Statistique des Sourds-Muets en Hollande*" (December, 1904) reviewed in the *Annals* for March, 1905, page 256. The statistics relate to the 787 pupils instructed in the Rotterdam School for the Deaf during the fifty years of its existence (1853–1903) and the deaf of the Netherlands reported in the Censuses of 1869 and 1889. (In 1879 and 1899 there was no enumeration of the Deaf.)

A. At the birth of the

Average ages of the	girls	boys	girls	boys	pupils		girls	boys	pupils
	born								
	totally		not totally		totally	not totally	born deaf		
	deaf.								
Fathers	34.7	34.0	34.8	32.3	34.3	33.3	34.7	33.6	34.0
Mothers	30.3	30.8	31.2	30.4	30.6	30.7	30.5	30.7	30.6

B. At the birth of the

Average ages of the	girls	boys	girls	boys	pupils		girls	boys	pupils
	having become								
	totally		not totally		totally	not totally	having become deaf after birth.		
	deaf after birth.								
Fathers	33.1	32.8	33.4	33.3	32.9	33.3	33.2	33.0	33.0
Mothers	31.1	30.8	31.1	30.9	30.9	31.0	31.2	30.8	31.0

C. At the birth of the

Average ages of the	totally		not totally		totally	not totally	deaf		
	deaf								
	girls	boys	girls	boys	pupils		girls	boys	pupils
Fathers	34.1	33.4	34.3	32.8	33.7	33.4	34.1	33 3	33.6
Mothers	30.6	30.7	31.3	30.7	30.7	30.9	30.9	30.7	30.8

2. Before proceeding with the deductions to be drawn from these tables, it must be premised with respect to every striking appearance among the numbers that we can make two suppositions, viz: either the appearance (first) is casual; or (second), it is not casual, but there is a causal connection between it and the supposed data.

In the first case every reasoning or deduction here following is excluded. It is quite impossible to come at rules more or less probable; and we advance not at all in knowledge of the causes of deafness.

Since the inquiry has the intention to trace how far there is a connection between the data and the conclusions, we can conveniently set aside the supposition that the remarkable numbers are casual. Even though running the risk of making deductions which later will appear to have been not exact enough, we are nevertheless bound to make them, accepting them conditionally, and leaving to later inquiry or other inquirers the task of correcting our errors and establishing more exact conclusions.

3. First of all let us examine the most general case. The A. A.* of the fathers at the birth of deaf children is 33.6 years. This number in itself is of no consequence.

4. We have no other numbers to compare with these; no A. A.'s of fathers at the birth of normal children, nor of blind, idiotic, feeble-minded children, etc.

5. Therefore we must divide our pupils into (*a*) the congenitally and adventitiously deaf; (*b*) the totally and not totally deaf; (*c*) females and males.

6. *First Division.* We put the separation of the congenitally deaf from the adventitiously deaf first, because congenital deafness is more closely connected than adventitious deafness with the physical and intellectual defects of the parents. Adventitious deafness is liable to be occasioned by casual additional circumstances, though it is possible, of course, that a child may come hearing into the world with the predisposition, received from the parents, to become deaf later from additional circumstances. It is, however, evident that the separation of the congenitally deaf from the adventitiously deaf gives the greatest opportunity to observe the difference in the cases.

* A. A. = Average Age.

7. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of congenitally deaf children is 34 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of adventitiously deaf children is 33 years. We remark between these numbers the great difference of one unit, and that the A. A. of the fathers is greater at the birth of the congenitally deaf than of the adventitiously deaf; thus in the less favorable circumstance that the children are born deaf, the A. A. of the fathers is greater than in the more favorable circumstance that the deafness has occurred after birth.

8. *Second Division.* Secondly, we divide the pupils according to the degree of their deafness into the totally and not totally deaf. In both groups congenitally and adventitiously deaf are to be found. However we have the probability that a difference will appear in the numbers, since it is possible that a less favorable physical or intellectual condition of the parents may have for consequence a stronger degeneracy of the children.

9. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of totally deaf pupils is 33.7 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of pupils not totally deaf is 33.4 years. The difference is 0.3 years; not so great as with the first division. Certainly this difference in itself would not be sufficient to ground decisions upon. When we observe, however, that this difference corresponds with that found in the first division, viz: that in the less favorable case the age is greater, then it obtains for us considerable value.

10. *Third Division.* Thirdly, we divide the pupils according to the sex into females and males. Here we cannot determine *a priori*, as we can with respect to congenital and adventitious, total and not total deafness, which of the two circumstances is the more and which the less favorable one. Let us therefore consider the numbers, and the difference between them. Then, by comparing with the two other divisions, it may be possible to solve this difficult question.

11. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of deaf females is 34.1 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of deaf males is 33.4 years, giving a difference of 0.7 years. Analogically with the two preceding divisions, where the greater age belonged to the less favorable circumstance the birth of a deaf female ought to be denominated, from a statistical point of view, as less favorable than the birth of a deaf male.*

12. We advance in consequence of the three divisions which have been made, to the following:

First Deduction. If we divide the deaf into two groups, according to a less and more favorable circumstance of the same sort, we shall find the higher A. A. of the fathers at the birth of the children where the circumstance is the less favorable of the two.

13. After these divisions and this first deduction, the question arises: Are there further means to convince ourselves of the greater or less probability of the deduction?

14. Therefore, it should be once more stated that with the congenitally deaf there is the greatest opportunity to observe the influence of the parent upon the constitution of the child.

Relying thereupon, we will now apply the method of division used with success in the foregoing paragraphs to the group of the congenitally deaf. We divide this group again in two ways. Nowhere more than here must this method of inquiry give conclusive results.

15. *Fourth Division* (the congenitally deaf divided into the totally and not totally deaf). The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of children born totally deaf is 34.3 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of children born not totally deaf is 33.3 years. The difference is a whole unit, and it corresponds with the difference in the fore-

*This conclusion does not refer to the position of the deaf female in society.

going cases; thus supporting the probability of the first deduction.

16. *Fifth Division* (the congenitally deaf divided into females and males.) The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of the female congenitally deaf is 34.7 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of the male congenitally deaf is 33.6 years. The difference is 1.1 years, and it corresponds with the difference of the foregoing cases, thus supporting the probability of the deduction of § 11.

17. *Sixth Division.* If we apply to the children born totally deaf the only division still possible, viz., into females and males, then the probability of the deduction must follow too.

18. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of females born totally deaf is 34.7 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of males born totally deaf is 34.0 years. The difference is 0.7 years, and it corresponds with the difference in the foregoing cases.

19. *Seventh Division.* The last occasion to try the deduction exists in dividing again the pupils who are in the less favorable circumstance of the second division into females and males (see § 9).

20. The A. A. of the fathers of totally deaf females is 34.1 years. The A. A. of the fathers of totally deaf males s 33.4 years. The difference between these two numbers is 0.7 years. This is certainly great enough to take into consideration; and, what is again very remarkable and pleads effectually for the probability of the deduction, it corresponds with the deductions of the foregoing paragraphs, viz., in the less favorable circumstance there is the greater age.

21. *Eighth Division.* A striking corroboration of the probability of the deduction we may obtain by comparing the congenitally deaf (*a*) in the least, and (*b*) in the most favorable circumstances. The first group is that

of the females born totally deaf; the second is that of the males born not totally deaf.

22. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of females born totally deaf is 34.7 years. The A. A. of the fathers at the birth of males born not totally deaf is 32.3 years. The difference is 2.4 years, and it corresponds with the differences previously found—a striking argument for its probability.

23. Congenital deafness is only one of the forms in which degeneracy appears. It is possible (statistics are not at our disposal) that a similar deduction is to be made from other kinds of degeneracy. The probability thereof is very great. What is the case with deaf-mutism is probably also the case with other abnormalities.

Taking that into consideration, and of two appearances which go together assigning that for cause and the other for consequence which must logically be so taken; at the same time noticing that a higher average age refers to absolutely higher ages among the composing elements, we determine the probability of the

Second Deduction. A higher age of the father (at the birth of a child), gives liability to a child affected with a less favourable peculiar quality or abnormality, and one in stronger measure abnormal according as the age of the father is higher.

24. We can make an analogical inquiry into the A. A. of mothers at the birth of deaf children. This inquiry has been made following the same method. Since repeating of it here would take too much space, we give only the results.

25. Where the differences in the 8 divisions (§§ 7, 9, 11, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22), for the fathers were 1.0; 0.3; 0.7; 1.0; 1.1; 0.7; 0.7; 2.4; those for the mothers are respectively 0.4; 0.2; 0.2; 0.1; 0.2; 0.5; 0.1; 0.1; showing that with a less favorable circumstance for the children

is connected a lower A. A. of the mothers at the birth of these children.

26. We reach thus the

Third Deduction. If we divide the deaf into two groups according to a less and a more favorable circumstance of the same sort, we shall find the lowest A. A. of the mothers at the birth of the children, where the circumstance is the less favorable of the two.

27. In a similar way as in §23—but, since not so unconditional, with less probability—we deduce from the third deduction, the

Fourth Deduction. A lower age of the mother at the birth of a child gives liability to a child affected with a less favorable peculiar quality or abnormality, and one in stronger measure abnormal, according as the age of the mother is lower.

28. The A. A.'s of the mothers (see §25), do not differ so much as those of the fathers in the foregoing cases. It is therefore—and at the same time on account of the character of the fourth deduction being more conditional than the second—that we can state the

Fifth Deduction. A higher age of the father at the birth of a child implies a greater liability to a child affected with a less favorable peculiar quality or abnormality than a lower age of the mother.

29. As an apparently necessary consequence of the second and the fourth deductions, we have the

Sixth Deduction. Where, at the birth of a child, a higher age of the father is connected with a lower age of the mother, there is the greater liability to a child affected with a less favorable peculiar quality or abnormality and one in stronger measure affected by the abnormality.

30. We see the great probability of the sixth deduction corroborated in the pupils in the most unfavorable circumstances—the females born totally deaf, when the A. A.

of the fathers at the birth of these girls (34.7 years) is compared with the A. A. of the mothers (30.3 years), giving a difference of 4.4 years, which is the maximum difference shown in the tables.

31. We see the great probability of the sixth deduction corroborated again in the tables A and B, wherein we find nine times, in each of two cases standing more immediately in connection with each other, in the less favorable circumstance a greater difference between the A. A.'s of the father and the mother than in the more favorable circumstance.

32. With the adventitiously deaf we do not meet the appearances stated in the first and third deductions (see Table B). That was to be expected, since with most of these children the condition of the parents has not any influence on the deafness of the child, as this originated after birth from different additional causes. The number of deaf children where the predisposition to become deaf after birth has already been implied in the parental constitution is too small to exert a marked influence.

That the deductions do not hold good for the adventitiously deaf, therefore, serves to confirm the probability of all the foregoing deductions.

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SCHOOL ITEMS.

Arkansas Institute.—Mr. Frank B. Yates has resigned the superintendency on account of poor health. He is succeeded by Mr. Arthur G. Mashburn, who has been a teacher in the Institute for several years and formerly taught in the Washington State School. Other resignations are Miss Frances Lowrey, to teach in the American School at Hartford, Miss Ida C. Lea, to be married to Mr. Mashburn, Mr. I. S. Humbert, Miss Pauline B. Camp, and Miss Effie Hart. New appointments are Mr. Ashbel Webster Dobyns, of the Washington State School, Mrs. Kate Shibley, Mr. Ki Loyd, Miss Josephine Avendino, Miss M. Lester Stanback, Miss Ethel Barker, and Mr. W. W. Humphries.

Illinois School.—Mr. Ezra S. Henne, late of the Iowa School; Miss Stella Stewart, late of the Pennsylvania Institution; Miss Artingstall, of Chicago; and Miss Anne Young, of Jacksonville, Illinois, have been added to the corps of instructors.

Indiana Institution.—Mr. Ezra G. Valentine, a teacher in this Institution from 1873 to 1876, died suddenly at his summer home at Battle Lake, Minnesota, August 19, 1905. Mr. Valentine was a graduate of Beloit College and taught for four years in the Wisconsin School before going to Indiana. Since 1876 he has practised law with great success, first in Chicago and then in Breckenridge. As a teacher of the deaf he was brilliant and original. At the Seventh Convention of American Instructors he read an able paper in favor of following the English order of words in making signs, and later contributed an article on the same subject to the *Annals*. While he was connected with this Institution false and malicious charges were brought against him and Dr. MacIntire, then the Superintendent. Both were acquitted of the charges by a joint investigating committee of the trustees and of the Legislature, and both afterwards sought and obtained redress from the law courts.

Kentucky School.—Rev. Leveus Eddy, a teacher in this School for the past thirty-two years and a teacher of the deaf for forty-seven years, died September 28, 1905, aged seventy-one. His death followed instantaneously upon a fall, which was probably preceded by an attack of heart failure. He had spent the morning in his schoolroom and seemed in his usual health. Mr. Eddy was born in Cazenovia, New York, and was graduated from Williams College. He taught for fourteen years in the Wisconsin School and was Superintendent of the West Virginia School for one year before going to Kentucky. While teaching in Wisconsin he was married to Miss M. O. Taylor, who with two children, a daughter and a son, survive him. Mr. Eddy was a man of quiet, scholarly tastes and devoted much of his time outside the schoolroom to scientific experiments. He was the author of an article on "The Relations of Deaf-Mutes to the Hearing World," published in the *Annals*, vol. xxiii, pp. 226–231.

Manitoba Institution.—Miss Maude Ruckley, a teacher of several years' experience in England, has been appointed teacher of articulation.

Michigan School.—Miss Blanche Blakely, Miss Mary Beagle, Miss Minnie Brabyn, and Miss Emma Farnum have resigned to be married. Miss Aldah Buchanan has resigned to teach in the Minnesota School. Miss Abigail Buckingham has been granted a year's leave of absence to study kindergarten work in Chicago. To fill these vacancies Mr. O. C. Stevens, B. A., a graduate of this School and of Gallaudet College, and Miss Gertrude Lyon, Miss Florence Thayer, and Miss Louise Galliver, graduates of the Flint High School, have been appointed. The three ladies were trained for the work in this School.

A new class has been created designated as the "Introductory Class." Any pupil who successfully passes the examination prescribed by Gallaudet College will be taken into this class and prepared for entrance into the Freshman Class at Gallaudet. Mr. J. M. Stewart takes charge of the new class. The painting and decorating department has been discontinued for want of funds.

Minnesota School.—Dr. Tate has been suffering for several weeks from a very severe attack of rheumatism. The two boards of directors have given him three months' rest for recovery and have appointed Mr. J. L. Smith Acting Superintendent.

Three teachers, Miss Park, Miss Scheetz, and Mrs. Renfro, have resigned, and five new ones have been appointed, viz: Mr. Victor R. Spence, B. S., a graduate of this School and of Gallaudet College and late supervisor in this School; Miss Aldah Buchanan, from the Michigan School; Miss Elise C. Engleman, late supervisor in the Kentucky School; Miss Mathilde Stodghill, who has had experience in common schools and studied oral methods at the Pennsylvania Institution; and Miss Annie R. Dixon, who studied oral methods at Miss Garrett's Home for Training in Speech.

Ontario Institution.—Miss Caroline Gibson, of the articulation department, has resigned to be married and is succeeded by Miss Agnes Gibson, who was trained for the work at the Clarke School. Mr. Madden has retired on account of the abolition of the boys' monitor class and is now engaged in business in Nashville, Tennessee.

Texas School.—Mr. B. F. McNulty has resigned the superintendency and is succeeded by Judge N. A. Cravens, who was private secretary to Governor Sayers during his four years of office and has hitherto filled the same position with Governor Lanham.

Washington State School.—Mr. A. W. Dobyns, Miss Olive Newlin, Mrs. Cecilia Watson, and Mr. Henry Guenther have resigned and are succeeded by Mr. and Mrs. E. S. Tillinghast, Miss Cora B. Satterly, and Mr. Paul Martin.

Wisconsin School.—Mr. Warren Robinson, with the co-operation of Mr. E. W. Walker, Superintendent, has prepared "A Suggestive Manual for the Use of Parents and Pupils," which is published by this School in a handsomely printed pamphlet of 44 pages, with illustrations. The subjects treated are "The Deaf in the Family," "The Manual Alphabet," "Signs," "Home Instruction," "Speech," "The Semi-Mute," "The Semi-Deaf," "The Blind-Deaf," etc., etc.

There are also lists of words and expressions relating to various environments, as the home, the farm, the town or city, professions and trades, hygiene, travelling, games, etc. The work is partly original and partly compiled, and is well adapted to be useful to parents, teachers, and pupils.

Miss Emily Eddy, a teacher in this School for thirty-eight years and a sister of the Rev. L. Eddy, whose death is mentioned above, died in Delavan, Wisconsin, September 14, 1905, of apoplexy, aged seventy-five. She was born at Mt. Auburn, New York, and educated at Holyoke Seminary. She became a teacher in this School in 1857, and resigned in 1895. She was the first woman teacher employed and was the first teacher of articulation. Through her long connection with the School, her excellent Christian character, and her devotion to the work, she exerted an unusual influence for good upon both pupils and associates.

Wisconsin Day-Schools.—Miss Frances Wettstein, of the Milwaukee School, has prepared a "Language Plan for the Wisconsin Day-Schools for the Deaf," which is issued in a pamphlet of 102 pages by Mr. C. P. Cary, State Superintendent. The plan is conscientiously and thoroughly worked out for eight successive grades, and is taken up under the headings of "Conversation," "Reproduction," "Composition," "Action Work," "Language Forms," "Grammatical Drill," "General Questions," and "Quick Lip-reading." While its special purpose is to instruct and guide inexperienced teachers, and to unify the work of the Wisconsin Day-Schools, its suggestions, illustrations, lists of idioms, and drill-work will be found helpful to all instructors of the deaf.

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